DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 135 236 FL 008 400

TITLE	Manual for Indochinese Refugee Education 1976-1977.
INSTITUTION	Center for Applied Linguistics, Arlington, Va.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C.
REPORT NO	SRS-77-21237
PUB DATE	76
CONTRACT	OE-300-76-0022
NOTE	288p.
AVAILABLE FROM	The National Indochinese Clearinghouse, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1611 N. Kent Street, Arlington, Va. 22209 (free)
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.83 HC-$15.39 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Age Grade Placement; Bibliographies; Bilingual Education; *Cross Cultural Studies; Cultural Awareness; Educational Administration; Elementary School Curriculum; Elementary Secondary Education; *English (Second Language); High School Curriculum; Immigrants; *Indochinese; Instructional Materials; Language Instruction; Learning Difficulties; *Refugees; Resource Materials; Second Language Learning; Student Placement; Teaching Methods; Vietnamese
IDENTIFIERS	Names

ABSTRACT

This manual is intended to meet the needs of elementary and secondary school teachers and administrators across the United States who have been charged with the education of Vietnamese, Cambodian, Laotian and Tai Dam refugee students. There are five sections to the manual. The first, "Retrospective," covers basically what has happened in the education of refugee children during the 1975-76 school year. The second, "Administrative Considerations," deals with such continuing problems as grade placement, school records, testing, etc. The third and largest section of the manual, "Language Considerations," is also the most comprehensive. It covers, in varying depths, all phases of language learning needs, with methods, techniques and materials for oral communication in English receiving the most attention. In the fourth section, "Cultural Considerations," the histories and value systems of the peoples of Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos are discussed. The last section of "Appendices" is basically bibliographic in nature and is intended to give background information or lead the educator to further sources. (Author/CFM)

Documents acquired by ERIC include many informal unpublished materials not available from other sources. ERIC makes every effort to obtain the best copy available. Nevertheless, items of marginal reproducibility are often encountered and this affects the quality of the microfiche and hardcopy reproductions ERIC makes available via the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). EDRS is not responsible for the quality of the original document. Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made from the original.

ED135236

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

A MANUAL FOR INDOCHINESE REFUGEE EDUCATION

1976 – 1977

FL 008400

A MANUAL FOR INDOCHINESE REFUGEE EDUCATION
1976 - 1977

Prepared by the staff of

The National Indochinese Clearinghouse, Center for Applied Linguistics

Allene Guss Grognet	Director
Anthony Pfannkuche Nguyen Hy Quang Barbara Robson	Senior Associates
Anne Convery David Holdzkom Hoang Thi Quynh-Hoa Thanh Nhat Vu	Research Assistants

Prepared for:
Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
United States Repatriate and Refugee Assistance Staff

by:
The National Indochinese Clearinghouse
Center for Applied Linguistics
1611 North Kent Street, Arlington, Va. 22209
1976

INTRODUCTION

This Manual is intended to meet the needs of elementary and secondary school teachers and administrators across the United States who have been charged with the education of Vietnamese, Cambodian, Laotian and Tai Dam refugee students. With a year of experience (and hindsight), we have been able to reflect upon the needs of both teachers and students, and compile what we think is a useful and practical handbook.

There are five sections to the Manual. The first, "Retrospective", covers basically what has happened in the education of refugee children during the 1975-76 school year. The second, "Administrative Considerations", deals with such continuing problems as grade placement, school records, testing, etc. The third and largest section of the Manual, "Language Considerations", is also the most comprehensive. It covers, in varying depths, all phases of language learning needs, with methods, techniques and materials for oral communication in English receiving the most attention. In the fourth section, "Cultural Considerations", we deal (again, in varying depths) with the histories and value systems of the peoples of Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos. The last section of "Appendices" is basically bibliographic in nature and is intended to give background information, or lead the educator to further sources.

There are several deliberate inconsistencies in the Manual. Throughout we have been indiscriminate in our use of "he" and "she" when referring to "teacher" or "educator" or "aide" or "student". (There are probably more "shes" for teachers and "hes" for students, but we have not kept count.) We have also been indiscriminate in our use of language names: "Cambodian" and "Khmer"; "Tai Dam" and "Black Tai"; "Laotian" and "Lao". One term that we have used throughout the text, "Indochinese", we have used with reluctance. While we realize that there are many linguistic and cultural differences among Vietnamese, Cambodians and Laotians (and Thai and Burmese, who share the land mass called "Indochina"), we could find no better term than "Indochinese" when referring to the totality of the recent refugee population.

In the preparation of this volume, the authors have had the generous assistance of other members of the National Indochinese Clearinghouse staff: Huynh Ngoc Can, Elizabeth Kimmell, Sonia Kundert, and Mary Ann Zima. Thanks are also due consultants such as Mary Galvan and Muriel Saville-Troike who helped us with materials and workshops during the past year. Finally, grateful acknowledgement

is made to the Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, for its support of this Manual and the National Indochinese Clearinghouse through a contract (OE-300-76-0022) with the Center for Applied Linguistics.

Allene Guss Grognet
Arlington, Virginia

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Introduction iii

RETROSPECTIVE

1 National Indochinese Clearinghouse 1975-1976 1

2 A Brief Sketch of the Refugee Child in the U.S. 4

ADMINISTRATIVE CONSIDERATIONS

3 School Records and Indochinese Names 12

4 Grade Placement 15

5 Miscellaneous Administrative Concerns 23

LANGUAGE CONSIDERATIONS

6 What Does It Mean To Learn a Second Language? 26

7 ESL Instructional Situations 29

8 ESL Teaching Materials 33

9 Dictionaries and Their Uses 39

10 ESL Methods and Techniques 42

11 Sources of Difficulty in Learning English for Vietnamese, Khmer and Lao 50

12 Supplementary Language Activities in the Regular Classroom 67

13 Differing Alphabets and Reading Problems 73

14 Bilingual Aides: Their Duties and Training 79

15 Providing Bilingual Support Instruction and Materials 83

CULTURAL CONSIDERATIONS

16 A Brief Glimpse at Vietnamese History 92

17 A Brief Look at the Histories and Cultures of Laos and Cambodia 104

18 A Cross-Cultural Glimpse of the Vietnamese People 113

19 Some Specific Cross-Cultural Considerations 132

APPENDICES

A Indochinese Refugee Education Guides 136

B Education in Vietnam: Fundamental Principles and Curricula 137

C A Detailed Content of the Vietnamese Secondary Curriculum 156

D A Selected Bibliography of ESL Teaching Materials: K-12 227

E Testing English Language Proficiency 235

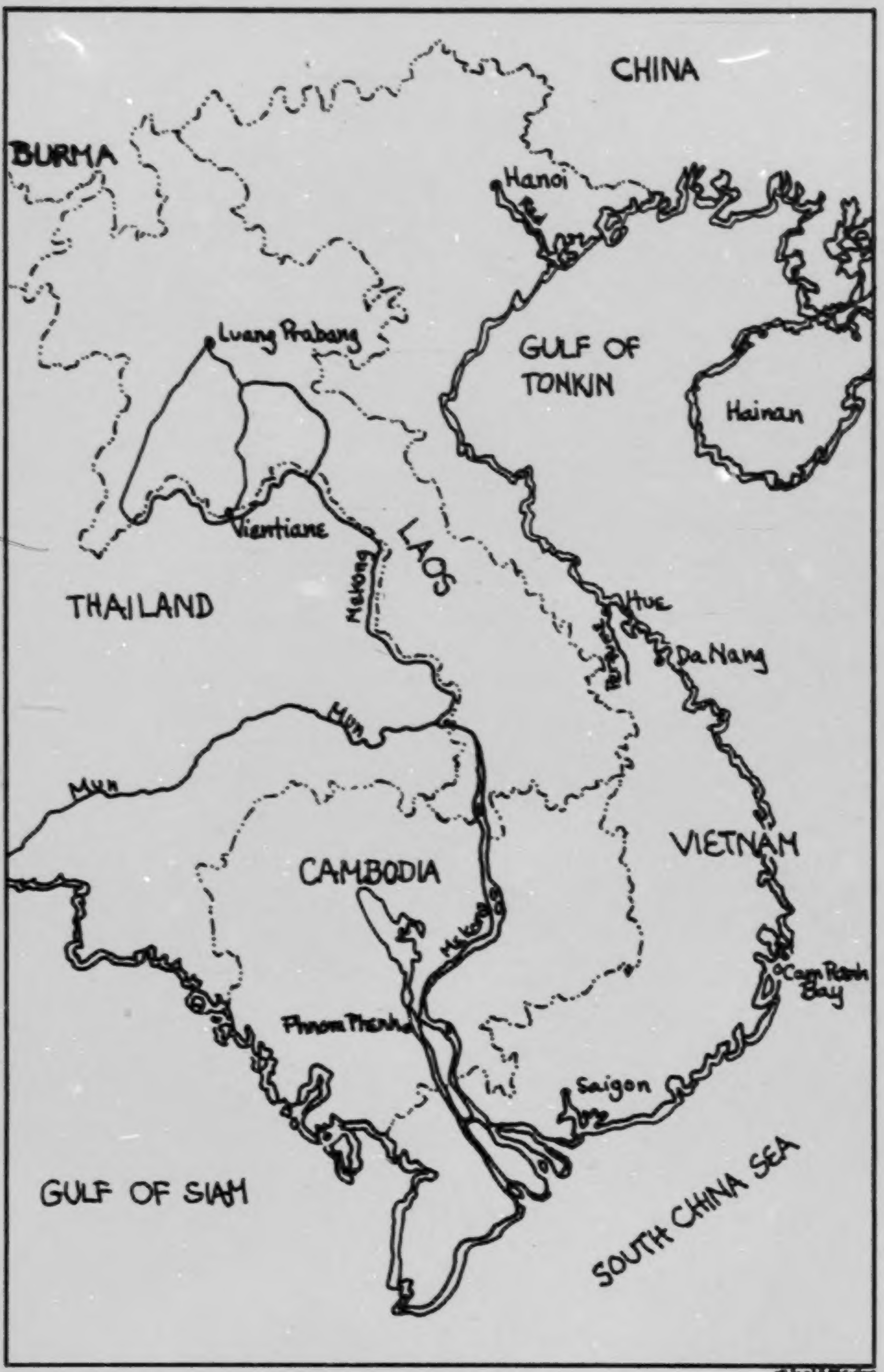
F A Selected Bibliography of Dictionaries 247

G A Selected, Annotated Bibliography on Bilingual/Bicultural Education 255

H Bibliography of Bilingual (and Monolingual) Vietnamese, Cambodian and Laotian Text Materials: K-12 267

I A Selected Bibliography on Indochinese Cultural Topics 270

J A Bibliography of Vietnamese Folklore, History and Literature 273


CHINA
BURMA
Hanoi
Luang Prabang
GULF OF TONKIN
Hainan
Vientiane
LAOS
THAILAND
Mekong
Hue
Da Nang
Mun
Mun
VIETNAM
CAMBODIA
Mekong
Cam Ranh Bay
Phnom Penh
Saigon
GULF OF SIAM
SOUTH CHINA SEA

INDOCHINA

1: RETROSPECTIVE

NATIONAL INDOCHINESE CLEARINGHOUSE 1975-1976

Soon after the Indochinese refugees started to arrive in the U.S., the Center for Applied Linguistics was funded by the U.S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, to establish and operate a National Indochinese Clearinghouse. The main focus of the Clearinghouse was to be the collection, analysis and dissemination of materials to meet the pressing educational needs of teachers of refugees and the refugees themselves. These included an understanding of the Vietnamese and Cambodian educational systems; grade placement; language testing; English as a second language (ESL) techniques, methods and materials; bilingual education possibilities; textbooks written in Vietnamese and Cambodian; cross-cultural considerations; etc. As we began to collect and analyze materials, it became apparent that another step would have to be added to our work process: that of adaptation. The majority of material we handled was not in a form readily useable by the classroom teacher, so the adaptation (or assimilation) process was added before information and materials were disseminated.

Our basic field of concentration during the 1975-76 school year was the general K-12 classroom teacher. The Refugee Education Guides we developed, the information in our Alert Bulletins, etc. was aimed at classroom teachers, administrators, speech or reading or DP teachers, who were unfamiliar with the needs of the non-English or limited-English speaking child, and found themselves faced with educating one or more refugee children. While much of the information which appeared in our General Information Series was useful to the ESL professional, or the adult education teacher, or the bilingual education teacher, our basic aim was to help non-professional language teachers and administrators across the country (and there were thousands) deal effectively with the language and culture needs of Indochinese refugee children.

In staffing the Clearinghouse we were aware of the "mix" needed to fulfill our goals: linguists, ESL specialists, southeast Asian scholars, cross-cultural specialists, elementary and secondary school teachers. We were also aware that the "mix" had to take into account national background as well as professional expertise, and the staff included Americans, Vietnamese and Cambodians.

An early staff decision was to allow those we were working for and with to have direct and immediate access to the Clearinghouse, so a toll-free telephone "hot-line" was installed. As soon as the line was in working order, the telephones started to ring, and there was rarely a chance to catch one's breath for the first four months. But we found out what school teachers and administrators and state and local education agency personnel needed, and we tried to couple their needs with our estimation of information they should have, both in our telephone answers and our subsequent Refugee Education Guides.

The hot-line was our contact point for quickly assisting educators. We followed this with three other contact points: 1) a series of Indochinese Refugee Education Guides; 2) periodic Refugee Alert Bulletins; 3) Personnel Resources Directories for the Education of Indochinese Refugees. (See Appendix A for a full listing.) In this way we were better able to give the teacher sustained help throughout the school year.

The following "box-score" might aid in gauging the magnitude of the staff's work. During the first nine months of operation (August 1975 - April 1976) the Clearinghouse compiled the following statistics:

Hotline calls — approximately 15,000 calls
Mailing list compiled — approximately 10,000 names
Information/material collected and analyzed — approximately 1,200 volumes
Refugee Education Guides/Alert Bulletins/Personnel Resources Directories prepared — 47
Refugee Education Guides/Alert Bulletins/Personnel Resources Directories distributed — approximately 70,000 copies
Workshop/Conference participation - 32

Our research and products were closely tied with technical assistance to local education agencies being offered by five of the ESEA Title VII Bilingual Resource Centers: 1) the Regional Cross-Cultural Training and Resource Center in New York City; 2) the Bilingual Education Service Center in Arlington Heights, Illinois; 3) the National Bilingual Resource Center in Lafayette, La.; 4) the Institute for Cultural Pluralism in San Diego, Calif.; 5) the Bay Area Bilingual Education League in Berkeley, Calif. We also worked closely with the Office of Education's Indochinese Refugee Task Force, various state education agencies, and the academically based Southeast Asian studies departments and research centers across the country.

There were some general principles which guided our mode of operation at the Clearinghouse from the beginning. We tried to produce quality work, linguistically or cross-culturally correct, without being overly academic or pedantic. We tried to provide educators and volunteers with enough easily readable information to help them in their specific teaching tasks, but we also tried to guide them to further, more complex studies in the references which appeared at the end of almost every Refugee Education Guide. We tried to be eminently practical — helping the inexperienced teacher along what we believed to be the easiest, least frustrating, and most result-oriented route — even though that route may not have been the most fashionable in professional circles. And finally, we tried to maintain for ourselves, for the teachers and volunteers we worked with, and for the refugee students, a sense of humor and a sense of compassion in trying and often emotionally charged situations.

In setting the general pattern for the Clearinghouse and its products, we think we have demonstrated how linguistic and cross-cultural scholars can respond to practical educational and social needs in an emergency situation. If a similar emergency does arise (and we all hope that it never does), we think the American educational community is now in a better position to respond than it was in June of 1975.

2

A BRIEF SKETCH OF THE REFUGEE CHILD IN THE U.S.

Introduction

When the Vietnamese and Cambodian refugees arrived in the U.S. a year and a half ago, in May 1975, nearly 50,000 of them were under 17 years of age. This massive influx of Indochinese children into the U.S. school system caused great concern among those teachers who had to teach them and among those education officials who had to provide for their educational needs. The primary focus of this concern was centered on the basic question of how best to help these children continue their cognitive education in a totally different school environment.

Based on information collected by the National Indochinese Clearinghouse over the past 18 months, it is now safe to say that, thanks to the efforts of U.S. education officials and also to the traditionally positive attitude of parents regarding education, all the school-age refugee children — with very few and isolated exceptions — have been going to school, and for the most part, placed at a grade level generally commensurate with their abilities.

This is no small achievement when we remember that last September, when the Vietnamese and Cambodian children shyly walked into their unfamiliar American classrooms all over the nation, not a single one of their teachers had ever set eyes on a real-life Indochinese child, and the teachers' unfamiliarity with their previous schooling as well as their cultural background was matched only by the children's bewilderment at the strange environment of their American schools.

One year and a half after the children's admission to American schools, the reports received on the children's progress are now generally encouraging, although some problems remain. The Vietnamese children are reported to be doing very well in mathematics and science but still need a lot of help in mastering the English language. They are said to relate well with their American peers, but still show signs of being inhibited in their relations with their teachers and other elders.

These observations and others like them that have been reported to us have served as the basis for some tentative conclusions about the Vietnamese refugee child in the U.S. These tentative conclusions, which we report in this section, can be of some use in the teacher's attempt to gain some insights into that refugee child in her class. For, that little Indochinese child playing tag during recess with his American classmates — with his unzipped jacket open to the unfamiliar cold — is in many ways different from the American child he is pursuing in the school yard. It is well to let this picture sink into our minds because, in itself, it is symbolic of another, more difficult pursuit on the part of the refugee child in the U.S.: catching up with his American peer, not just in a game of tag, but in real life.

The profile of the refugee child offered here is an aggregate picture based on reports from teachers, direct observations, and conversations with parents as well as with the children themselves. The experiences are mainly those of Vietnamese children and parents, and the teachers of these children. Not that we have overlooked the Cambodian, Laotian and Black Tai child. It is just that the overwhelming majority of Indochinese refugees in this country are Vietnamese, and therefore, the reports we received reflect their experiences more than those of other Indochinese refugees. We can say, however, that the experiences of the Cambodian, Laotian and Black Tai child have been amazingly similar to that of the Vietnamese child, and that the aggregate profile we draw certainly includes them.

The War Experience

A former American reporter in Vietnam, talking about a little Vietnamese war orphan he adopted and brought back to the U.S. once said that when the nine-year old fellow wasn't a boy, he was a little old man. The reporter was referring, of course, to all the experiences which, as a child born in war, growing up in war and witnessing the brutal scenes of war, the boy had gone through. Although in the case of this orphan the experiential makeup seemed to be extreme, it is fair to say that compared to an American child, the Indochinese refugee child is, in many ways, a life-wise little individual. His experiences with physical dangers, death, deprivations, insecurity as well as with adult behaviors — made more admirable or more reprehensible under unusual conditions of crisis — are a matter of record. Most refugee children have seen, directly or indirectly, war and its effects on society and people. Whether these experiences and the hazardous and trauma-filled exit from their native land have affected them in any significant way, it is difficult to say. We are aware of no systematic effort to examine this problem. Thus, with the children "getting along very nicely", it is well for a teacher to keep this particular aspect of their emotional makeup in mind, just in case expert psychological help is needed.

English Language Problems

Section III of this Manual will deal with the language problems of refugee children and techniques for teaching English. In general, three factors have influenced English language learning over the past year: age of the student, motivation of the student, and the type of English language instruction received. The younger the child, the easier it was to learn English. The most difficult situation was that of the high student, given little direct help with language learning, and expected to keep up with his American peers. Hopefully this was not a common situation, but we do know that it did occur.

English language learning still remains as a major need for the current year. Even though the majority of refugee students did get some instruction and can now follow classwork to some degree, full participation in the entire curriculum will depend on how well the student can handle English. Continued special instruction is called for.

Parental Pressure

Compared to an American child, the Vietnamese child is under more intense pressure from his parents to study. Products of a culture which places a high value on "book learning", Vietnamese refugee parents have been reported not just to encourage their children to study but in many cases, with characteristic authoritarian display, to force children to study and to do well in school.

This traditional parental concern over study and learning can sometimes be seen to involve a rather restricted definition of what learning is. A Vietnamese parent in Virginia once reportedly withdrew his son from the high school track team because he felt the son had no business associating himself with the track team while his time could be better spent alone at a desk at home "learning" more English. Learning English was thus seen to involve a book and a desk and not communication with other people.

This concern can, in some cases, translate into an over-solicitous attitude on the part of parents regarding help in homework. In one case reported to us, a child's homework was almost always perfect. The teacher therefore had an erroneous idea of the progress of the child, which led her to give the child less attention than he needed and deserved. Getting less attention from the teacher, the child had to rely even more on the parents at home: a vicious cycle unwittingly entered into by some Vietnamese parents (and, of course, by any other overeager parents anywhere).

A Minimized Play Cycle

An American educator in Vietnam with a good knowledge of Vietnamese home-life once observed that in the eat-sleep-work-play routine of a child's life "the

Vietnamese child seems to have a shorter play-cycle than his American counterpart." It is not unusual, he said, to find a Vietnamese high school student spending the entire weekend at his study desk at home furiously studying and "learning", to the intense pride of his parents. Play was not insisted on for the Vietnamese child, nor was it elevated to the level of a counterpart and necessary complement of work, as it is in the U.S. The saying about all work and no play was not valid for the Vietnamese child, and play was seen only as a reward bestowed for good work. While the refugee child has changed somewhat during the last year, he and his parents still have a hard time putting school athletic activities into proper perspective.

Respect For Age

According to a study on the problems of aging conducted by a team of experts from the University of Maryland, American children have less and less contacts with old people and thus grow more and more unfamiliar with people of old age. The Vietnamese child, who very often lives close to or with grandparents under the same roof, can be said to have more experience in this regard. His behavior toward the aged as well as toward his elders is usually one of respect and obedience which is inculcated early in the confines of the family. This is often seen in the manners which he is taught to use when dealing with his elders; manners which, to an American, seem to be formal and "exceedingly polite". Early in the 1975 school year, many Vietnamese children were reported to come to their teachers, when summoned, with their arms folded across their chests in a posture of respect. They were reported to bow their heads when passing their teachers in the hall and were observed to hand finished work to the teachers with both hands, eyes cast slightly downward. After a year and a half in a culture which is impatient with formality and cumbersome etiquette, these children are now reported to have largely abandoned these practices, probably having found out they could get by without them.

Caught Between Two Forces

The seemingly simple fact of cultural adjustment mentioned above helps to focus our attention, however, on an important cross-cultural problem for the Vietnamese child in America. While he is freed from the observance of these Vietnamese forms of politeness at school, he is still bound to them at home where these forms are insisted upon by the parents. What this amounts to, is the necessity on the part of the child to "switch cultures", so to speak, displaying one set of manners at school and another set of manners at home. This ability to switch two cultures on or off as the situation requires is the essence of cross-cultural adjustment. And upon this ability depends much of his success in being accepted by both forces: his family on one hand, and the new society in which he now lives on the other. It is an acquired ability which, even for an adult, requires a keen sense of observation and a conscious effort. Many Vietnamese children are reportedly still not very successful in acquiring it. This, in a real sense, is what is behind those complaints voiced by the Vietnamese parents we talked to, who confided in us that somehow their children brought home "some pretty bad manners from school". The parents were appalled at the directness and the diminished deference which the children now display at home.

This problem also help to reinforce a key point being made by educators involved in bilingual-bicultural education. The typical American school environment is not always, for all children, an extension of the home. The refugee child is the subject of a tug-of-war between two forces, with the school representing the new and dominant culture in which he now lives, and the family embodying the old culture from which he was uprooted.

The Passive Learning Style

American educators familiar with Vietnamese education often point out that the Vietnamese child tends to learn things the "passive way" rather than the "active way" which American children are encouraged to adopt. The child is said to learn by listening, watching and imitating rather than by actively doing things and discovering things for himself. Still other experts point out that this essentially non-dynamic approach to learning has deep roots in the Vietnamese culture. Although this question cannot be delved into here, it is necessary to keep this in mind when a Vietnamese child still displays reluctance or even discomfort at the way a certain subject matter is handled at school. His poor work, if it comes to that, might not be simple laziness, but rather might be a manifestation of his uneasiness with this new approach to learning. It will probably take some time for a refugee child to get accustomed to learning via the discovery process. It might be noted here that when this active, dynamic approach to learning is extended from the not-so-large confines of a classroom to cover the child's life outside of the school as well (after-school jobs, extra-curricular activities, etc.), an added burden is put on the child, and adjustment problems become more pronounced.

"They're very reluctant to ask questions"

This was what a teacher in Pennsylvania once said about the two Vietnamese girls in her social studies class. It was difficult in this case to tell how much of the girls' reticence was due to the lack of adequate English proficiency and how much was due to a 'cultural factor'. But most observers of Vietnamese children's behavior — Vietnamese as well as non-Vietnamese — agree that a Vietnamese child tends to place the teacher on a high level of respect and is less inclined to be "familiar" with the teachers than his American counterpart. It is pointed out that the Vietnamese teachers themselves, who usually prefer a formal and serious atmosphere in the classroom and who are great disciplinarians, tend to maintain a certain distance between themselves and the pupils. Vietnamese educators are quick to point out that it is not the case that a Vietnamese child cannot express himself in class; but rather that self-expression on the part of the children is practiced under such tight control that, to an American teacher, the Vietnamese classroom would seem inhibitive.

There is evidence that this control was what initially the Vietnamese refugee children expected from their new teachers in America. The two girls mentioned above, seeing for the first time the lively atmosphere in their American classmates lacked respect for the teacher and that the teacher was "too easy on the students". Present reports indicate that after a year there is less reluctance to participate in class discussion, and that there is a better understanding of the nature of the American classroom, but the majority of refugee children are still far from outgoing.

There is, however, another dimension to this question. After spending years under more rigid control, the Vietnamese child is reported to be a little confused by the new freedom he finds in the American classroom. Without much experience in exercising this freedom, he is often reported not to know where the limit of this freedom is, which makes him susceptible to becoming an actual disciplinary problem. Documented cases of this kind have come to our attention, and will probably continue to occur during the current school year.

Agility, Manual Dexterity and a Genius at Improvisations

An Indochinese child is usually of slighter build than an American child of the same age. This slight build combines with a quick reflex to make him excel in games where agility, not muscular strength, is called for. He is usually superb at ping-pong and soccer, but is a poor acquisition for other rougher games.

His manual dexterity has been praised time and again by American teachers, and his handwriting has often been called good or superior. Living all his life in a culture where children's toys are scarce, most of his toys are usually simple and are often invented and made by the child himself from discarded things around the house, a little-noticed fact which may have contributed to the formation of a characteristic trait which his elders are said to be remarkable for: the Vietnamese genius at improvisations. It has been reported that many very young Vietnamese children quickly become bored with American toys, and look for sticks, blocks, clothespins, etc. in their classrooms with which to improvise.

The Vietnamese child, even the older child, is also reported to be afraid of the dark, and more often than not, believes in ghosts. A teacher may have to be a little more solicitous of the child on gloomy, wintery days.

The brief sketch presented above comprises only a few of a multitude of pieces that make up the interesting puzzle which is the Indochinese refugee child. Next to his parents and others in his family, the teacher will probably be the outsider who will get to know him best. As for his oft-mentioned adjustment problems, it is useful to recall here what six Vietnamese refugee children in a small Maryland town unanimously told one of our staff researchers. Asked whether they would like to go back to Vietnam if there was a chance to do so, all of them replied "No", but they also added that they would like for all of their relatives to come over here to live with them instead. Two Vietnamese parents, who witnessed this little fun-poll, grimaced upon hearing the children's negative answer, thus confirming for us something we had often heard before, namely a deep attachment on the part of the Vietnamese adults for their native land. For the children, this is clearly something they don't seem to be too concerned about.

2: ADMINISTRATIVE CONSIDERATIONS

3

SCHOOL RECORDS AND INDOCHINESE NAMES

When 60,000 Indochinese students entered American schools in September 1975, one major administrative concern was that of how to list students on permanent school records. In this short chapter we will deal with Indochinese names and suggestions for school listings. Since name order and naming patterns are different for Vietnamese, Cambodians and Laotians, we will consider each nationality separately.

Vietnamese usually have three names, e.g. Nguyễn Hy Vinh or Hoàng Thị Thanh. The Vietnamese surname or family name is written first and the given or chosen name last, which is, of course, the opposite of the American system. For example:

Surname Family Name	Middle Name	Given Name Chosen Name	
Nguyễn	Hy	Vinh	(Vietnamese male)
Hoàng	Thị	Thanh	(Vietnamese female)
Jones	Charles	John	
Brown	Patricia	Anne	

While the American male adult would be known formally as Mr. Jones and informally as John, his Vietnamese counterpart would be known both formally and informally by his given name: Vinh or Mr. Vinh. The Vietnamese female is also known by her given name: Thanh or Miss Thanh. (The title Ms was not used in Vietnam.) If she is married (say to the above Mr. Vinh) she has a choice: she can be known formally as either Mrs. Thanh (her given name) or Mrs. Vinh (her husband's given name). Informally she is always Thanh.

Given school records and dealing with parents, this obviously poses a problem for administrators. How does one list and file a student's name, and how does one list the parents? We suggest that the principal record card for each Vietnamese student be filed by the individual's given name, with a second card crossfiled by family name. The given name on both cards should be underlined or circled so that the child can be addressed properly. (Often younger children will identify themselves by given name only, and might be very confused if the family name were used.) Records for Mỹ-Hoa and Quang, children of Mr. and Mrs. Vinh, might look like this:

Principal Record

Name: Nguyễn Cao Quang : Sex: M
Address: 5415 Jackson Street
Telephone No.: 232-5790
Parents Name: Nguyễn Hy Vinh (Mr.)
Hoàng Thị Thanh (Mrs.)
(can also be called Mrs. Vinh)
Birth Date: July 4, 1970

Secondary Record

Name: Quang Cao Nguyễn : Sex: M
Address: 5415 Jackson Street
Telephone No.: 232-5790
Parents Name: Nguyễn Hy Vinh (Mr.)
Hoàng Thị Thanh (Mrs.)
(can also be called Mrs. Vinh)
Birth date: July 4, 1970

Principal Record

Name: Nguyễn Thị Mỹ-Hoa : Sex: F
Address: 5415 Jackson Street
Telephone No.: 232-5790
Parents Name: Nguyễn Hy Vinh (Mr.)
Hoàng Thị Thanh (Mrs.)
(can also be called Mrs. Vinh)
Birth date: February 10, 1967

Secondary Record

Name: Mỹ-Hoa Thị Nguyễn : Sex: F
Address: 5415 Jackson Street
Telephone No.: 232-5790
Parents Name: Nguyễn Hy Vinh (Mr.)
Hoàng Thị Thanh (Mrs.)
(can also be called Mrs. Vinh)
Birth date: February 10, 1967

Should Quàng take sick in class, the secondary crossfiled records will show that he has an older sister in school.

A word of caution! While the names situation may have seemed confusing to the American school administrator last September, it is really confusing this September. In an effort to "Americanize", many Vietnamese adults have changed the traditional order of their names, leaving the administrator guessing about how to list a newly enrolled child. With the above as your guide you can question the parents, and then crossfile records, if necessary.

Cambodians, like the Vietnamese, traditionally place their family names before their given names and are called by their given names. For example, Sok Sam Bo's family name is Sok, but he would be called Bo or Mr. Bo, as appropriate. In keeping records, you can use the same system you devise for the Vietnamese.

Laotians, however, traditionally write their names as we do in American with the given name first and the family name following. However, they follow the Vietnamese and Cambodian custom of being addressed, both formally and informally by their given names. Thus, Vixay (given name) Sihareth (family name) would be called Vixay or Mr. Vixay. (Also Laotians usually have only two names.) While cross-referencing of records may not be necessary, continuing to underline or circle the name by which a person is addressed would be helpful.

Just a word here about changing a child's name. In an attempt to make students feel part of the American classroom, many teachers have "Anglicized" or changed a student's name. Vinh became Vinny or Vincent and Nhung became Nancy. A given name, for all of us, is probably our most personal possession, and forcibly having it changed may well do violence to the human psyche. Indochinese children have had enough violence done to them in their short lives, and the school should not add to it by taking away their identity. If, however, the student wants to be called by an American name (some high school students have chosen this as the "in thing"), then we would suggest that in class the student be called by the name of his choice. All school records, though, should contain only the official name.

GRADE PLACEMENT

After a child is enrolled, the next question which arises is, "What grade do I place him in?" In their initial contact with incoming Indochinese refugee children in the fall of 1975, school administrators had to make a complex decision about placing these children in the most appropriate grade level. Administrators soon discovered that one sweeping principle will not work with all children, just as it does not work with all American children. The task became even more difficult because the children did not have any records, could not speak English and could not freely advise the school about their academic backgrounds and potential.

The essential problem of placement is still with us: that of knowing where the Indochinese student is — academically, psychologically, physically, and linguistically. The purpose of this section of the Manual is to develop strategies for making sound decisions about grade placement. First let's examine some early decisions about placement policy which have been reported:

1. Policy: Place the Indochinese student one or two years behind his placement in Indochina.

   If the problem here is that of the child not speaking enough English to cope, say with 8th grade work, putting him in 6th grade will likely not help the language. The English used in instruction at the 6th grade is about as complex as that used at 8th grade. What such placement means is that the student will be exposed to concepts he has already studied in his native land. While some students have been willing to repeat content while learning language, others have demonstrated expected reactions of boredom and resentment. Some parents and sponsors have asked for retardation of one or two years, expecting the burden of learning to be less and the opportunity for success to be greater. Academic success can be guaranteed by what goes on in the instructional program, not in placement.

2. Policy: Since many Indochinese students are smaller and appear to be less sophisticated than their American counterparts, it is better to put them with younger children.

   This could be a temporary solution which has dangerous consequences. In the first place, size of students has little to do with academic maturity. Social adjustment has more to do with compatibility of interests and sharing common experiences than size does. In the second place a year's observation of Indochinese students gives evidence that they model their behavior after their American peers rather quickly. What a pity it would be to place a student with younger students for social reasons and discover too late that he will never have a basis for compatibility. It would seem better to place the student with Americans near his own age and promote experiences which will make him one of the group.

3. Policy: Place the student with his age group and hope he can cope.

   This is probably a correct placement decision, but coping must be engineered in the instructional program. It cannot be left to chance.

4. Policy: Find out what the student knows and place him in a grade level which will take him forward academically.

   This is the thrust we will follow here. Procedures and sample tests are included. It assumes that the school is willing to modify its program to meet the special needs of this new population.

Obviously, no one set of criteria will work for all students. The enlightened school staff is well aware that individual differences must be dealt with individually. A student's level of academic maturity, his social development, his parents' wishes, his background of experiences, his willingness to try new things will all have to be considered.

In preparing this section on placement procedures, several important questions were raised:

1. What does a comparison of schools in Vietnam and the United States reveal? What is studied at a given age in each school?

   Though the method of teaching in the two countries differs considerably, what is studied at a given age is remarkably similar. A child of eleven, for example, has studied essentially the same skills and concepts his American counterpart has studied. The priorities differ but the concepts and skills are very similar.

2. Given the fact that most Vietnamese children do not handle English well enough to conceptualize in it, will new work (skills, concepts) be impossible if the Vietnamese student is kept at grade level?

   What was discovered in analyzing both school systems was that very few new concepts were learned each year. Academic progression in both systems was slow, steadily building on what had gone before. Essentially, the same limited number of key concepts and skills were studied and reinforced year after year in both systems.

3. If a student did not have enough English to understand a teacher's explanation or read the text, would he not miss the concept? Further, would this not seriously retard and frustrate him?

   Considering that the thrust of both curriculum and text material seems to be to teach few concepts and skills repeatedly in a variety of ways, it would seem that the teacher should be willing to find a way of getting the concept to the child, with or without the text. Furthermore, if he misses the concept once, he will have another chance at it again. The curricula of both systems provide this.

4. If the Vietnamese child cannot keep up (with class discussion, teacher lecture, reading the text, probably because of his lack of English), won't he completely miss the concept?

   Concepts can be taught at many levels of abstraction. The most complex concept can be expressed in very simple language. Teachers would do well to learn how to express concepts at varying levels for all their students.

5. How fast can the Vietnamese student learn English so that he can participate fully in the instructional process?

   That depends on how good the school's program of teaching English as a second language is. One year's experience has indicated that good programs have enabled most Vietnamese to continue their education with little interruption. Schools which did not provide a good program of English as a second language can expect the refugees to have difficulty for some time to come. In the latter situation the problem is not with placement or with the refugee's background, but with the school's program to meet his needs.

After an examination of texts at all grade levels (primarily English language arts texts), the following general checklist was arrived at for placing Indochinese students in an appropriate grade level.

1. What concepts/skills are already known? How can the student demonstrate these?

2. What background for concepts/skills is known? How can the student demonstrate this?

3. What will be the most important skills to be covered this year?
4. Are there alternative strategies of instruction which can hurdle the English deficiencies?
5. Are any materials available so that concept/skill development can go on in his dominant language?
6. Where should the student be placed according to: academic preparation, social adjustment, sense of security, problems of adjustment.

It is clear that if Vietnamese students are placed in a grade level appropriate to their own educational background, and the student speaks little or no English, school staffs will have to employ a variety of ways for determining what the student knows. The placement process may involve some nonverbal measures such as: doing mathematical computations, sequencing pictures into meaningful order, recognizing the symbolic nature of reading, responding to a nonverbal cartoon, responding by drawing a picture or choosing a picture, etc.

The best check on grade placement can be made by having a bilingual aide (or any bilingual adult or older student) present to give directions and interpret the response. This process involves one or more of the following:

1. An administrator or teacher would decide what concept or skill is to be tested and prepare an appropriate question or task. The bilingual aide would then translate the question or material into Vietnamese or Cambodian and administer the test under supervision of the American staff member. The aide would relate to the teacher what response the child gave so that results could be evaluated and appropriate judgments made.
2. Pull together a sequence of questions. The answers, taken together, reveal what the student knows. Skills and concepts critical to success at school are complex; no single question or test is definitive. Several related questions or tasks, however, will reveal much about what a student knows and can do.
3. Reduce the complexity of language for the partial bilingual. Remember, concepts can be expressed in very simple language. The process of reducing language complexity involves using shorter sentences, fewer clauses, less technical vocabulary, and repetition of key words and phrases related to the concept. The partial bilingual may be able to demonstrate good mastery of a concept in simple language.
4. If the student can read some English, let him read the test rather than

take it orally. Many Vietnamese students have demonstrated a greater ability to read English than to orally understand and/or produce it.

5. Let the student respond to a question or stimulus in his own language and from his own cultural background, the bilingual aide translating what is said. Asking a student to explain a concept or demonstrate a skill in a foreign language (English, in this case), even though he knows the material very well, places a great burden on him. If he can respond in his own language through a bilingual aide, he can speak more fluently and fully. The aide can then indicate to the teacher just how much the student knows.

Model Placement Processes

Following are some sample or model processes that can be used as "placement tests". They are based on concepts discovered in textbooks currently in use. The concept is identified and then several "placement tests" are suggested to determine the student's control of the concept.

The models given here are from the two content areas of reading/literature and study skills. A comprehensive testing for placement program is not attempted here. These samples get at much of the curriculum, however — study habits, reading ability, conceptualization, value judgments, artistic understanding, processes of logic and inquiry, cultural foundations, and response to stimuli. For each placement test a suggested grade level is given. A designation of "Grades 3 and up" assumes students below grade 3 would likely not be able to handle the test, but that students above grade 3 would.

It is hoped that the school can build upon these model processes in developing other measures for placement. In finding suitable placement materials, a bilingual aide will be invaluable, but even without a bilingual aide, suitable material can be selected from Refugee Education Guides bibliographies.

Reading and Literature

A. Concept: Words can be used to paint a picture or set a mood.

Placement tests:

1. Give student a short poem in his native language — description of a season or a scene.
    a. Ask student to draw a picture from the poem. Teacher or aide can evaluate accuracy. (Grades 3 and 4)
    b. Ask student to list words of color, shape, design, mood. List

phrases in poem which best describe scene or paint the picture. (Grades 5 - 7)

c. Ask students to point out one or more metaphors and tell what they mean. (Grades 8 and up)

2. Give student a short paragraph in Vietnamese describing a particular place.

B. Concept: Pieces of literature have structure.

Placement tests:

1. Ask student to read a brief story in his native language.
    a. Tell in order the events in the story. (Tests for higher grades would involve more events and more complicated ones.)
    b. If the story is a Vietnamese translation from a reader to be used, pictures in the teacher's manual or student workbook can be used. Or pictures can be drawn. The student's task would be to arrange the pictures in chronological order. (Grades 1 - 4)
    c. Is the title appropriate to the story? Why? (Grades 3 and up)
    d. Was the ending appropriate? Make up an alternate ending which could have happened. (Grades 4 and up)
2. Ask student to read a short dialogue (or very short play).
    a. Tell who the characters in the play are (how many, their names, their function). (Grades 3 and up)
    b. Let two children role play the skit, playing the characters and improvising the dialogue. (Grades 4 and up)
3. Ask student to read a short narrative poem in his native language.
    a. Ask him to retell the story, keeping events in chronological order. (Grades 4 and up)
    b. What was the author trying to make the reader feel about the story? (Grades 3 and up)

C. Concept: Literature reflects the experiences and attitudes of both the author and reader.

Placement tests:

1. Ask student to read a short but forceful poem in his native language.

   a. Tell what experience in the author's life is mentioned in the poem. Tell what happened. (Grades 3 and up)

   b. Make up a story telling what might have happened to the author to have inspired the poem. (Grades 5 and up)

2. Ask student to read a short, personal essay on a universal theme.

   a. Tell a story from your own life which is similar to something mentioned in the essay. (Grades 3 and up)

3. Show child a picture (available in any reading program) with one or more aspects of the picture wrong. Ask child to tell what is wrong. (Grades 1 - 3)

D. Concept: Literature is based on the folklore and history of a cultural group.

Placement tests:

1. Ask child to tell a fragment of folklore from his native country. (Grades 1 - 3)

2. Ask student to read a short poem bearing a reference (rather obvious) to a folk tale.

   a. Tell briefly the story alluded to. (Grades 5 - 7)

   b. Tell what tale or myth is referred to and why it is appropriate to the poem. (Grades 8 and up)

(Note: The Indochinese student will be unfamiliar with Western myth and folklore; thus information about them would be inappropriate for placement. If he understands his own folklore, he can begin to study Western folklore with relish.)

Study Skills

A. Skill: Students should be able to take notes on significant aspects of class discussion.

1. Have an aide or older student read aloud a short essay in Vietnamese, Cambodian or Laotian, with a clearly identifiable main idea and at least three supporting details. Before the reading ask the students to write down notes as they hear the essay. (Grades 3 and up)

2. Dictate three sentences, asking students to write it verbatim. (Grades 3 and up)

B. Skill: Students should be able to make usable notes on materials they read.

1. Ask the student to read a short essay in his native language containing an identifiable main idea with at least three supporting details. Ask him to make notes as he reads. (Grades 7 and up)

C. Skill: Students should be able to write a brief report using at least three sources. (Time limitation should require use of skimming and use of key words.)

1. Ask student to read three short paragraphs in his native language, all related to the same topic. Pose a question about the material. Ask student to make notes containing information relative to the question. Then student should write a short answer to the question using his notes. (Grades 5 and up)

This section on placement processes assumes that accurate grade placement can be made for refugees if there is present in the school a bilingual adult or older student who can translate the test to the child and the child's answer to the school. Any alternative to the use of the aide will make even semi-accurate academic evaluation exceedingly difficult. A certain amount can be learned from observing non-verbal behavior and, as the child learns English, he will be able to reveal more of what he knows. Initially, however, it will be difficult to know what a child knows without the presence of a bilingual aide. In such cases, we reiterate what was suggested at the beginning of this section: it is best to place the child in a grade level which will take him forward academically.

5

MISCELLANEOUS ADMINISTRATIVE CONCERNS

Intelligence Testing

In the previous chapter we gave some possible models for ad-hoc grade placement tests, and Appendix E lists the available tests of English language proficiency which teachers and administrators can use both for placement and diagnostic purposes. We have not mentioned anywhere, other tests frequently administered in schools, e.g. I.Q. tests or standardized achievement tests. We recommend that these tests not be given to refugee students.

During the past year we have gotten several requests for translations of I.Q. tests (Stanford-Binet, Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children, etc.) into Vietnamese, Cambodian or Laotian. We have discouraged such translations, since standardized American intelligence tests are culture-bound, even when translated into another language.

Recent studies of testing practices in American schools have revealed gross biases against minority groups. Robert Williams (a black psychologist who is author of the Black Intelligence Test Counterbalanced for Honkies, also known as the B.I.T.C.H. Test) has demonstrated the unfairness of determining black intelligence scores based on tests requiring knowledge of white, middle-class culture. Similarly, a study by Jane Mercer shows that there has been a disproportionate classification of Mexican-Americans as retarded because of their low I.Q. scores. Even when tests have been purported to be culture-free or culture-fair (such as those requiring non-verbal stimuli) there are problems. Such tests often require analytical thinking to process the "correct" answer, and some Native American children value mythological over analytical explanations of natural phenomena. If our current tests are biased culturally against blacks, Mexican-Americans, and Native Americans, they certainly are biased against Vietnamese, Cambodians and Laotians. While minorities born and raised in the U.S. may not be of American culture, they are still in American culture; not even that much can be said about the Indochinese refugees.

If the school finds that it is absolutely necessary to have some measure of a child's intelligence, it is suggested that an ad-hoc test be devised in the student's native language by someone who shares the same cultural background as the student. In general terms, such a test should be descriptive and prescriptive (not selective and predictive) and should be used to determine the learning experiences required to more adequately ensure academic success.

Health Problems

As most refugees arrived in this country without school records, they also arrived without health records. In some cases, refugee children were immunized against the same diseases as were American children (smallpox, diphtheria), in some cases not. And, of course, there are diseases prevalent in Southeast Asia which do not usually show up in this country. Two short publications should help the administrator and school nurse. The first, a 24-page booklet, Tips on the Care and Adjustment of Vietnamese and Other Asian Children in the U.S. is available from the Children's Bureau, Office of Child Development, P.O. Box 1182, Washington, D.C. 20013. The chapter on health information, while brief, is very useful.

The second publication was prepared by the Orange County (California) Department of Education. It is a 48-page booklet of Health Services Forms with Vietnamese Translations. Since forms used throughout the country are often very similar, schools can easily adapt these forms for their own needs. The booklet can be obtained for $1.25 from the Orange County Department of Education, Publication Sales, P.O. Box 11846, Santa Ana, California 92711.

3: LANGUAGE CONSIDERATIONS

6

WHAT DOES IT MEAN TO LEARN A SECOND LANGUAGE?

In learning to speak English (his second, or maybe third language), the refugee child has to master four different aspects of the language. First, he must learn to understand spoken English, and to pronounce it in such a way that he is readily understood by native English speakers. He must also learn how to combine words into sentences which express what he wants to say. In addition, he must learn vocabulary in English suitable for his work in the classroom and his social life outside it. And finally, he must learn the correct style of English - whether formal, informal, colloquial, etc. - to use in the various social situations he finds himself in. These four aspects of language - pronunciation, sentence structures, vocabulary, and styles - will be learned in different ways and at different rates by the refugee child, depending on his age, his motivation, and the amount of special attention his language problems get.

There is a correlation between the age of a child and his ability to learn a language. The very young child - between the ages of one and four or five - can learn a language simply by hearing it spoken around him. As the child grows older, he gradually loses this ability, so that by the time he is in high school he and his teachers have to make a directed effort if he is to learn more than isolated words and phrases.

The six- or seven-year-old, for example, will quickly pick up vocabulary, pronunciation and the simpler structures of conversational English; in a very short time he will sound pretty much like his American classmates. (He will probably, however, need help learning the more complex structures which occur in written English; otherwise, he will have trouble later on in understanding his textbooks and writing in more formal English.) In contrast, the older child - say, the thirteen- or fourteen-year-old - will pick up understandable pronunciation, but he will speak with an accent. And, unless he is given special help, he will have a great deal of trouble with English sentence structures.

Naturally, the interaction between age and language learning is mitigated by several other factors. The most important of these is motivation: the child who for one reason or another is highly motivated to learn a language will overcome all kinds of obstacles, and seem to pick it up almost overnight; conversely, the child who doesn't want to learn a language simply won't, even in an optimum language-learning situation. Motivation comes in all sizes and shapes, of course, but in general the greatest source for the refugee child will be his peers: he will want to learn English so he can interact with them. This is one of the reasons why it is so important to place the refugee child with other children his age: if he is with children much younger than he, he will not identify with them, and therefore will not be compelled to interact with them.

Earlier, we mentioned four aspects of language which the refugee child must master: pronunciation, structures, vocabulary, and style. It seems useful, at this point, to go into more detail as to what each of these aspects involves.

Learning to pronounce a new language involves, first, learning to hear it in terms of its own sound system (instead of the sound system of one's native language), and then learning to produce the sounds of the new system in such a way as to be understood. The Vietnamese speaker, for example, will hear the t of top as a completely different sound from the t of stop; there is a difference in pronunciation between the two t's, and in the Vietnamese language that difference is focussed on, and the two are heard as different sounds entirely. The Vietnamese speaker has to learn that in English this difference is ignored, and that English speakers react to the two t's as though they were identical. Conversely, the Vietnamese speaker will not hear the difference between th and t, and so will hear thank and tank as the same word; the sound we spell as th does not exist in Vietnamese, and so he interprets it as the sound in Vietnamese phonetically the most similar to it, i.e. t. He has to learn to hear the difference between th and t, and to memorize which sound goes in which word, as well as learn how to pronounce the th.

Learning the structures of a language involves, basically, learning how to link words (and suffixes) together in sentences. There is much, much more to language than getting the proper vocabulary items and pronouncing them understandably. The following excerpt from a letter in the National Indochinese Clearinghouse files demonstrates this: "I'm is refugees from Vietnam please help me gives some books..."; the author intended to say "please help me by giving me some books", but we were able to figure this out only because he couldn't have meant anything else. Although all the nouns and verbs in this sentence are all right, the grammatical trappings which indicate the relationships among the words are either lacking or in the wrong place, and as a consequence the sentence doesn't say what the author means. In the absence of a firm knowledge of how words are grouped together to form sentences, the Vietnamese or Khmer or Lao speaker will arrange them in a way which seems natural to him, i.e. the way they are arranged in his native language. The result either will or will not communicate what he means, depending on how closely it happens to come to the English sentence we actually say. The Vietnamese or Khmer or Lao speaker must be shown, one by one, the sentence structures by which the various relationships among words are expressed, for example first the sentence pattern This is a ....;

then perhaps the plural These are ....; then the question forms Is this a ....? and Are these ....?; and so on.

It should be pointed out here that the language used in the third grade classroom is not structurally simpler than the language used in the seventh or eighth grade classroom; a comparison of textbooks will show that while the concepts and vocabulary increase in complexity, the language is pretty much the same. Compare, for example, the sentence

> A resistance bridge employs a highly sensitive galvanometer as an indicating device, together with a calibrated variable-resistance standard and a voltage source in a suitable circuit arrangement.

with the sentence

> Your library has a carefully chosen collection of books as its most important part, together with a selection of records and films in a special viewing room.

These sentences are structurally nearly identical; it's the vocabulary that makes the first so much more complex than the second.

Learning vocabulary involves at first learning the words for objects and actions in one's immediate environment, then branching out into more remote areas of interest. Specialists in the ESL field are agreed that learning vocabulary is best done in context: the child given a long list of words to memorize will never master them as well as the child who hears them used over and over, and who is required to use them himself in meaningful situations. The refugee child, by virtue of the fact that he is going to school in an English-speaking environment, will hear words used over and over, and will have to use them himself if he expects to communicate; his circumstances, therefore, will force him to learn vocabulary in the best possible way.

Learning the various styles of English will also be forced on him by his circumstances, assuming that care is taken to place him among peers he can identify and be friends with. We all use different styles of English in different social situations. A woman talks to her husband in one style ("Darling, I'm out of logs for the fire..."), to her children in another ("Jackie, if you don't get your muddy feet off that chair right now I'm gonna brain you!"), and to her boss in yet another ("I've read the proposals, and if it's all right with you I think we should schedule the workshop for the second week in October.") Children, also, use different styles on the playground, in the classroom, to their parents, and so on; the child who knows, say, only playground English will come across as brassy when he talks to his teachers, and the child who knows only English-teacher English will come across as stuffy and pedantic on the playground. The refugee child, if placed with his own age group, will quickly learn the different styles appropriate to his age and social situation by observing and imitating his peers.

7

ESL INSTRUCTIONAL SITUATIONS

In the previous section, we talked about the various aspects of language learning. In this section, we will discuss these aspects from the point of view of the American school and teacher.

In general, the Vietnamese or Cambodian or Laotian child should be exposed as much as possible to native American English. This is a condition easily met in most parts of the U.S. (In areas of heavy, heavy refugee concentration, bilingual education with an ESL component is possible, and we will discuss bilingual/bicultural strategies in a later chapter.) Where there are a few Vietnamese or Khmer or Lao speakers in a class or school, the children should be (gently and unobtrusively) separated so that they will be with their American peers as much as possible. The point here is not to make the child use English in situations where he would normally use his native language, but to engineer the situation so that he is regularly in situations where English is the only language he can use.

To expect the child to use English with other speakers of his native language is, first of all, futile. Second, it will make the child feel guilty over something basically beyond his control; he cannot, for example, naturally use English at home with his parents; the family's language is their native language, and using anything else is in violation of the social and psychological functions of language. Third, it is impossible to require a child to speak English without seeming to make some kind of value judgment of his native language.

The refugee child in an English-speaking environment will learn a great deal of the language on his own, but to ensure that he develops equal competence in all aspects of the language, he should have special help.

He will need special work on pronunciation depending on his age. If he is younger, he probably won't need much beyond an occasional pointing out, for example, that I, eyes, and ice are three different words. If he is older, on the other hand, he will need to be taught to hear the difference among these three words, and drilled in their pronunciation.

Whatever the age of the child, he will need special help with the structures of English. In the lower grades, he will pick up the simpler structures from his classmates, but will have to be taught the complex structures that occur in written English; in the upper grades and high school, he will have to be taught all the structures. Teaching structure is something that simply can't be done efficiently in an ordinary classroom, so it will be necessary to arrange special classes, tutoring sessions or in-class learning groups.

The responsibility for teaching vocabulary will fall on the shoulders of the classroom teacher or teachers. The child will pick it up one way or another on his own, but the classroom teacher can make it much easier for him in several ways. First, she can keep whoever is teaching the child structure up-to-date with what is going on in the classroom (a note on Friday afternoon, "I'm covering Chapters 2 and 3 in Social Science next week; see pp. 18 and 35 for relevant vocabulary", will enable the structure teacher to incorporate those vocabulary items into her structure drills). Second, she can give the refugee child a list of crucial terms, so that he can get used to them (and perhaps look them up in his dictionary) before she talks about them in class. Third, she can make sure that the child never uses words in isolation, by requiring him to speak in sentences or phrases (learning vocabulary involves not only learning the meanings of words, but also how the words fit into sentences). If she teaches younger children, she can encourage the refugee child to paste pictures of things he's interested in in a scrapbook; then, during reading groups, she can supply the child with the necessary vocabulary to talk about his pictures.

The most that teachers can do in helping a child learn the different styles is, again, to see that the child has ample opportunity to be with his peers, then sit back and watch him learn from them. There will be times when the child will get his signals crossed, and say something terribly inappropriate in the classroom; it is necessary in these cases not to judge the child as if he were a native speaker, but to explain gently that whatever he said isn't used in the classroom.

To summarize: pronunciation and structure should be taught in special classes or tutoring sessions; vocabulary will be learned in the regular classroom; and styles will be learned from peers.

The composition of the special ESL class for refugee children will vary, depending on circumstances. In areas where there are several refugee children in a school, it will be possible to group the children into ESL classes, and possibly hire a trained ESL teacher. In areas where there is, say, only one or two children in a school, clearly classes won't be possible, and the English language training of the child will be dealt with through existing personnel in the school.

Because of differences in the ability to pick up another language, it is inefficient to group children of widely differing ages in the same ESL class. The six-year-old, for example, will learn the language much, much faster than his fourteen-year-old brother, but will have to be taught to read; the fourteen-year-old won't need much work on reading skills, but will need drilling in pronunciation;

the ESL textbook appropriate for the six-year-old is much too babyish for the fourteen-year-old; and so on. Grouping children in classes as follows allows for more efficient teaching and better use of ESL textbooks:

K-2: ESL and beginning reading skills
3-6: ESL and beginning writing skills
7-9: ESL
10-12: ESL

In the ideal world, the teacher of these special ESL classes has had special training in ESL techniques and methodology. In the real world - especially in areas of the United States where there has been little or no experience with foreigners, and therefore no need to develop expertise in ESL - the teaching will fall to the reading teacher, the speech therapist, the DP teacher, volunteer parents, or the classroom teacher. Fortunately, there is a wide range of ESL textbooks available which have been written with the inexperienced teacher in mind. These textbooks will be discussed later, but for the moment it should be pointed out that a native speaker of English who is equipped with an ESL textbook well-suited to the age and interests of her students is in a very good position to teach the language effectively.

Whoever it is that teaches the special classes, it is crucial that he or she speak English natively or have native fluency. First, the students need a good model to imitate. Second, if the teacher does not speak the native language of the students, it is impossible for the class or tutoring session to become a discussion, in the students' native language, of English grammar. In a good ESL class, the native language of the students is used - if at all - only to save time and to clarify difficult points; it is not the medium of instruction. For this reason, it is not necessary for the ESL teacher to speak the language of her students.

Ideally, the refugee child should be given as many ESL sessions as possible; the sooner he learns English, the faster he can take full advantage of his other classes. It is not necessary for him to have the same ESL teacher; as long as they coordinate their efforts, he can have any number of ESL teachers, and will benefit from being exposed to the different American English accents of each. It makes sense to pull the child out of any class which he can't benefit from because he doesn't speak English; beyond that, the mechanics will vary according to the number of students, and the various resources of the school or schools involved. Here are some examples:

- The single refugee child in the first grade, for example, might be pulled out for special sessions at the time when his classmates are learning phonics (the phonics won't do him any good until he learns the sound system of English); every day at this time, a volunteer mother works through an ESL book with him, until he is comfortable using English. As he learns to read (ESL books for this level teach reading skills) she checks his comprehension of longer sentences.

- The five children in grades 3 through 6 are grouped into a single class for their ESL class; the reading specialist teaches them oral English for an hour a day. (Note that she won't be teaching reading - refugee children this age already know how to read, under normal circumstances.)

- The two refugee tenth-graders have had their schedules arranged so that rather than take sophomore English, or advanced American history, they meet daily for ESL lessons. Their teacher is a twelfth-grade honor student who is crazy about grammar; he gets special credit for his teaching, and works under the supervision of his English teacher.

- The fourteen refugee high-school students in a school district are assembled at a central location daily during specified hours in the morning or afternoon or after school (miserable for the kids, who might rather be playing basketball or rehearsing with the orchestra or working at MacDonald's, but if this is the best that can be done, it's much better than nothing) for ESL classes with the district's traveling ESL teacher.

It is important, in working out the details of special classes and so on, not to expect miracles, especially in working with older refugee students. Learning a language takes a long time; under average circumstances, the refugee high-school student should not be expected to be working up to grade level for about two years, especially if the community resources are such that his learning has to stop until he learns English. The more special attention the student has, however, the sooner he will learn.

It is often the case that the special ESL classes take on an additional function, that of cultural advising. The ESL class is the only place where life moves at the slower pace of the refugee child, and he often uses the time to ask questions and get advice on aspects of American life that puzzle him. His ESL teacher, therefore, assumes an importance in his life over and above that of his other teachers. Since teaching a second language is also teaching a second culture, the ESL teacher automatically will become cultural advisor on a whole range of subjects.

8

ESL TEACHING MATERIALS

As we mentioned in the preceding chapter, ESL materials are designed to teach English to students who speak another language. They present all the basic language skills that a student has to master in order to understand and use English to communicate with teachers and peers. Almost all basic ESL textbooks are based on an "audio-lingual" or "oral communication" approach, rather than a "grammar-translation" approach. This means that they emphasize oral skills in learning language, and they concentrate on developing listening comprehension and conversational fluency by teaching pronunciation, sentence structures, and active control of conversational vocabulary. While reading and writing are usually introduced in early ESL lessons, in the beginning these skills are used mainly to reinforce and supplement basic oral language development. Reading and writing receive more attention in later classes, and most ESL programs include ESL readers, writing textbooks, and other materials.

ESL materials teach English language skills in a natural and efficient way. Since oral skills are primary in language learning, ESL programs concentrate on teaching the fundamental elements of spoken English: pronunciation, sentence patterns, or, structure and vocabulary.

An adequate control of pronunciation is necessary for communicating in spoken English. A student has to be able to produce the sounds of English and to hear them accurately in normal conversation. The goal is to achieve an adequate control of English sounds and sound patterns, not necessarily flawless or accentless pronunciation, but close enough to standard English so as not to prevent or distort communication in informal spoken English.

English - like every human language - organizes words in an orderly and systematic way to convey meaning. To communicate, even at a very elementary level, a student must master basic patterns of English sentences, as we illustrated in the preceding chapters. These patterns generally have to be taught patterns in a carefully ordered sequence, beginning with simple and common structures. Mastering these basic sentence patterns means becoming able to use them automatically and fluently to express ideas.

The particular vocabulary a student has to learn immediately depends a lot on the student's age. Adults and often high school students need a fairly predictable vocabulary of "survival terms," including words for personal information, shopping, banking, and so on. A student in primary school, however, may have a greater need for words like "scissors," "crayola," and "ball." Good ESL materials recognize these differences and present a vocabulary and context that is relevant to the student's needs and interests.

Materials are graded according to the level of language achievement. Basic or elementary texts require no previous knowledge of English, while intermediate materials are for students who have already mastered basic structures and vocabulary. In fact, some ESL materials are available in a graded series of textbooks in six or more volumes, and they can take a student from the zero level through full command and fluency in English.

Most ESL texts are designed with a particular audience in mind: some are written for young children, others for high school students or adults. Although they are based on the same general principles of language learning, they often use quite different teaching techniques. Materials for adults emphasize drills and controlled conversations, while children's texts often use games, songs, and other activities to teach the sounds and patterns of English. The grading of texts shouldn't be confused with age or school class level. For instance, the third or fourth volume of the series by Faye Bumpass, The New We Learn English, would be too advanced (in language) for the beginning adult student, even though it is intended for a second-grader.

As mentioned above, one of the most important elements in grading ESL materials is the careful sequencing of structures. This means that the simplest and most common English structures are introduced first, and that the student goes on to more complicated structures by building on those he has already learned. This carefully ordered sequencing of sentence patterns in an ESL text has several important advantages for the teacher, especially the inexperienced ESL teacher. First of all, it solves the teacher's immediate problem: what pattern to teach, and when to teach it. Moreover, it allows the teacher to conduct the classes entirely in English, without having to use (or know how to speak) the student's native language to explain structures or basic vocabulary. The patterns and vocabulary that are introduced first can be explained by demonstration, using pictures and objects in the classroom. For example, the teacher can teach the pattern "This is a book," and "That is a desk," entirely through gestures. As the students master basic patterns, they can build on them to learn the meanings of more complicated sentences. Because it presents sentence patterns in a carefully ordered sequence that encourages efficient language learning, a good ESL text is a guide for the teacher which offers a teaching plan for an English language course that has clear and achieveable goals. By following the lessons in the book, a teacher can be sure that the student will be taught everything about English that he has to know.

We should mention here, what ESL materials are not. First, they are not literacy materials. Literacy materials, such as a basal reading series, are not designed to teach ESL. They were developed to teach reading skills to students who have already mastered the basic patterns and vocabulary of spoken English. They don't teach basic oral language skills. But it is the oral skills that the ESL student needs to master first, not the literacy skills. (In fact, a large proportion of the Indochinese refugees over the age of seven are already literate - in their native language.) Since they are not designed to teach oral language skills, literacy texts are not nearly as effective as ESL materials in teaching English to refugee students.

Second, ESL materials are not grammar books. Standard grammar books - the kind of textbook that might be used in a high school English class - are not very effective either. Their goal is to teach American students information about the language they speak, namely English. They teach points of correct "usage" (such as the distinction between "sit" and "set"), but they assume the students have full mastery of the language (even if some of their usages are not "standard.") It is a case of misplaced energy to try to teach a fine distinction of usage to an ESL student who has not yet mastered the most basic English structures, and therefore standard grammar books (even bilingual ones) are not appropriate for the ESL program.

There are several different general varieties of ESL texts: full or extensive courses, "survival" courses, and intensive or review courses for college prep. In addition, there are supplementary materials, such as readers and reading programs. Finally, there are language cassettes and so-called "self-taught" courses.

Extensive courses. Extensive ESL materials teach the entire range of English structures. They take the student from the beginning level through advanced. Once a student has worked through an extensive course (typically a series of graded texts), he should be able to handle any kind of written or spoken English. An extensive course may be designed so that it will fit directly into a school curriculum, and it may be used in classes over a period of years. There are extensive courses available for all ages of students.

There are several extensive courses that are widely used with students in the primary grades. English Around the World (and we mention specific series or individual texts only as examples, not as recommendations. A selected bibliography of ESL teaching materials appears as Appendix D.) is a six-volume series for elementary school students. In addition to textbooks which are colorfully illustrated, the series contains many supplementary materials, including posters, records, word cards, and other display items that appeal to younger children.

The teacher's manual is aimed at the grade school teacher with little ESL experience, and the series is appropriate for students in the first six grades. The New We Learn English, and We Speak English, are similar in their approach. The first is for primary students, and the latter for the upper elementary grades. The Region One Curriculum Kit (R.O.C.K.) is an oral language development system for the first two grades, and it contains toys, puppets, and other objects, as well as posters and filmstrips, for teaching language skills to primary students.

A number of series are available for students in the upper grades. One of the most widely used is English for Today. This set of six books is designed to take the student up to a full command of spoken and written English. Both reading and writing exercises are introduced early in the program, and controlled composition exercises continue throughout the books. The vocabulary and the reading passages are geared to the needs and interests of older students, and there is a greater emphasis on structured drills (and less on games and class exercises). Each volume is accompanied by an extensive teacher's guide which sets out ESL techniques and methods, and outlines the teaching goals in each lesson. English for a Changing World is another full course for secondary-school students and young adults. The material is carefully sequenced and structured within a situational framework. The teacher's edition is annotated for each level.

Most extensive, multi-volume courses also contain a variety of supplementary materials, including posters, displays, charts, readers and workbooks, and often tapes or cassettes.

There are also Semi-Extensive courses that are in wide use. These courses take the student from beginning through intermediate English. They differ most notably from Extensive courses in that there is less concentration on advanced skills such as writing and high level reading comprehension. New Horizons is an example of such a course. It contains six books covering oral skills. Drill work is accomplished through picture stimuli and student response.

"Survival" courses. Survival courses are intended for students (most often adults) who are in immediate need of enough English to get along in an English-speaking environment. Unlike extensive courses, they don't teach the full range of English, rarely going beyond the intermediate level. They focus heavily on understanding and speaking, and incorporate into each lesson survival vocabulary (like "social security number" and "driver's license") and survival skills (such as filling out job applications and opening a bank account). The goal of these courses is to develop basic control and fluency within a limited vocabulary and range of structures in order to communicate in common situations. One of the most successful survival courses for Indochinese adults has proved to be English as a Second Language, A New Approach for the 21st Century.

College prep courses. College prep materials — they may be a quick review or an intensive course in "collegiate" English — are widely used in colleges and universities to bring foreign students up to the level of English used in regular college level courses. These materials are good for students who have already had a good deal of English in their own country before coming to America, or for students who need a high level of English in order to go to college. They can be used with high school seniors. But, because these materials were primarily prepared for professional ESL teachers, they often lack guides for inexperienced teachers.

Readers and reading programs. As students gain control of basic vocabulary and patterns, they are often anxious to read outside the classroom, both to develop their skills and for recreation. Like ESL texts, ESL readers are graded according to language difficulty. Usually this is done by controlling both vocabulary range and structures. There are ESL readers available to interest students of all ages at different levels of difficulty.

A graded series that was written for elementary students, the Miami Linguistics Readers (D.C. Heath) are colorful readers that work well with young ESL students. The series is divided into two groups of readers: the first a reading readiness kit, and the second short, appealing stories, written in simple language.

There are readers for both young students and older ones in the series, New Method Supplementary Readers. This is a classic ESL series (though now more than a little old-fashioned in method and approach, and often heavily British in idiom), but it contains titles that interest a wide range of students. A more recent series, Falcon Books, contains eighteen "best sellers" abridged and simplified, and thus appealing for the intermediate ESL student. Each title in this series is accompanied by a teacher's manual, so it can be used in class as well as outside reading.

Some texts intended mainly for adults can be read with interest by high school students as well. No Hot Water Tonight, for instance, follows the experiences of a group of people living in a tenement in a big city, and treats situations that typically occur in this setting. A reader that can be used with any elementary text, its subject matter includes such crucial topics as retail installment credit agreements, leases, schedules, and so on.

A reading program that has been used quite successfully with ESL students of all ages and levels of ability is the S.R.A. Reading Laboratory series. Each Reading Lab contains a large number of carefully graded reading lessons — a short reading passage followed by comprehension and skill exercises. The student works through the Lab at his own pace, with a minimum of teacher monitoring. Although not developed for ESL students, the Lab is a good resource for building second language reading skills. Most schools and many libraries have sets of Reading Lab materials which the ESL student can use.

Language Cassettes and self-taught courses. Students at the high school level are often very interested in "language tapes." There are a number of recorded ESL tapes and cassettes available. The typical recorded series contains pronunciation and fluency drills, oral comprehension exercises, and model conversations. They can be used by the individual student, either in a fully equipped language laboratory, or on a small home tape recorder or cassette player.

Some of these recorded courses claim to be very nearly self-tutorial, in the sense that all the materials that a student needs — text, workbook, and tapes — are provided. But even the most complete program cannot entirely replace the language teacher. First, it is extremely difficult for the beginning student to hear the sounds which occur in English, but not in his own language. It is also hard for him to hear and correct his own pronunciation. The problem is made more difficult because few small tape recorders or cassette players can reproduce sounds accurately enough to benefit the beginning student. A teacher or tutor, on the other hand, can provide an accurate model of English sounds, and can immediately recognize and correct the student's mistakes. A few minutes of direct drill work with a teacher can be far more productive than hours spent with tapes played on an inadequate tape machine.

Tapes can be a valuable supplement to classwork, and they are particularly useful for students who have only a little time for language classes. But tapes aren't a magic "language pill." They should supplement some teacher-student interaction. A student can't be expected to learn English entirely on his own. Even the most highly motivated student needs a teacher or tutor to monitor and guide his progress.

As we have seen, the choice of ESL materials depends on a number of factors. The most important relates to the student's goal in learning English. A "survival course" may be ideal to get an older student functioning quickly in basic English, but it may not help the student who needs to advance beyond the intermediate level. A full, extensive set of ESL materials, on the other hand, may provide a structured, yet flexible framework for the ESL student who wants to achieve an advanced level of fluency in English. And a course with extras — tapes, charts, teacher's manuals, etc. — may prove more effective for the inexperienced teachers, than a course that does not provide supplementary materials.

9

DICTIONARIES AND THEIR USES

The high school or young adult refugee student — and his teacher — nearly always seems to feel that what he needs most is a dictionary. In this section, we will provide information on the uses and limitations of both bilingual and monolingual dictionaries. Appendix F contains a bibliography of dictionaries appropriate for speakers of Vietnamese, Khmer, and Lao.

The dictionaries in the annotated list in the appendix are either monolingual or bilingual. Monolingual dictionaries are those in which the words and their definitions are both in the same language. They are designed to be used by a native speaker of the language, and range from unabridged dictionaries, which aim at listing all the words in use in the language at the time of publication, to dictionaries with very limited scope, such as those written for preschool children.

Bilingual dictionaries are those in which the words are listed in one language, but their definitions (as well as information on grammar and pronunciation) are given in another language. They are designed to be used by someone who is learning one or the other of the languages. A bilingual Vietnamese-English dictionary, for example, lists Vietnamese words (in Vietnamese alphabetical order), and gives English equivalents, definitions and grammatical information for them; it is useful to the student of Vietnamese or English.

Bilingual dictionaries are either one-way or two-way. One-way bilingual dictionaries contain two lists of words: a two-way Vietnamese-English, English-Vietnamese dictionary has a list of Vietnamese words with English definitions, and a list of English words with Vietnamese definitions. (If the dictionary is at all extensive, the lists of words will be in two volumes, for reasons having to do with portability.) The title of a dictionary will ordinarily indicate whether it is one- or two-way, and which way it goes: a Vietnamese-English dictionary has a Vietnamese word list with English definitions, an English-Vietnamese dictionary has an English word list with Vietnamese definitions, and a Vietnamese-English, English-Vietnamese dictionary has both. The preface and explanatory notes of a dictionary will be in the same language as the definitions.

Problems with bilingual dictionaries

A bilingual dictionary differs from a monolingual dictionary in that in a bilingual dictionary, equivalents are given whenever possible. In a monolingual dictionary, for example, the word dog is defined ("...common domestic animal...

a friend of man, of which there are many breeds..."); in an English-Vietnamese dictionary, however, the Vietnamese equivalent of *dog*, i.e. *chó*, is given, with nothing about domestic animals mentioned at all. In many cases, this is all that is necessary; the Vietnamese learner of English already knows what a *chó* is, so when he looks up the word *dog*, being told that it is a *chó* is fine for his purposes. Likewise, if the Vietnamese learner of English wants to find out what the English word for *chó* is, his Vietnamese-English bilingual dictionary will tell him that it is dog, and he can proceed with whatever he was saying.

Words like *dog* which translate fairly straightforwardly across languages are for the most part nouns and verbs denoting common objects and actions; as long as the language learner restricts himself to talking about mundane items and activities his bilingual dictionary will not lead him astray. Even on this level, however, problems can arise.

The most obvious problem stems from the fact that in every language words have multiple meanings. The best a bilingual dictionary can do is to list the equivalents for these multiple meanings, usually with the most frequently occurring meanings ordered before the less frequently occurring ones. The dictionary user must depend on the situation to supply him with enough clues to enable him to choose the right equivalent, and very often the situation doesn't. In one English-Vietnamese dictionary, for example, *dog* is translated as *chó*, the Vietnamese equivalent for *dog* as we mentioned above; an alternative equivalent given is *giá để củi trong lò sưởi*, which translates as "fireplace rack"; a third equivalent given is *người đểu-giả*, which translates as "unscrupulous person", as well as "dog". The English half of this dictionary is British rather than American.) The Vietnamese learner of English, given the sentence "There's the dog," has only the situation to tell him which of the three equivalents is the right one. Conversely, the Vietnamese learner of English who looks up *chó* in a Vietnamese-English dictionary is given the English equivalents *dog* and *unscrupulous person*, and he has to choose between them. The Vietnamese is as much at a loss deciding between *dog* and *unscrupulous person* as the American is who is deciding between *chó*, *giá để củi trong lò sưởi*, and *người đểu-giả*.

Often these decisions are arbitrary ones, and the results are the sorts of "fractured English" like *I'd like someone book, we need it in the English program the present*. (There are countless examples of "fractured Vietnamese" and "fractured Cambodian" as well.) The only way for, say, a Vietnamese to guard against mistakes of this sort is to look up a word first in a Vietnamese-English dictionary, and then look up each of the alternative equivalents in an English-Vietnamese dictionary to double-check its meaning. All of which is tedious and time-consuming to the point of being counter-productive.

Another unavoidable problem in using a bilingual dictionary is that very often there is no exact equivalent in one language for a word in the other, and the dictionary has to list a definition. In English, for example, there is no direct equivalent for the word *cái*, which functions grammatically like the word piece in *a piece of cake*. One of the Vietnamese-English dictionaries defines it as "word denoting inanimate object"; a Vietnamese refugee inexperienced in the ways of dictionaries might well translate the phrase *một cái quần* — which means "pair of pants" — as "one word denoting inanimate object trousers"!

Choosing a dictionary

Unfortunately, really excellent bilingual dictionaries simply don't exist, except for languages like German-English and French-English, where there has been sufficient interaction between the countries speaking the languages to warrant the expense of the extensive research necessary to produce a good bilingual dictionary. Nonetheless, an intelligent user can get something out of even a very poor-quality dictionary, if he is aware of its limitations. As we mentioned before, words for common, ordinary things and actions are likely to have direct equivalents in both languages; these are the items the newly-arrived refugee will be looking up, and they are also the ones most successfully dealt with in a bilingual dictionary.

The psychological value of simply having a dictionary in one's hands should not be discounted, especially with highly educated refugees. Often, a dictionary serves — like the "courage medicine" the Wizard of Oz gave the Cowardly Lion — not so much to provide knowledge that wasn't there, but to provide the confidence to use the knowledge.

In any event, the refugee should be encouraged to switch from a bilingual dictionary to a monolingual dictionary as soon as possible, not only because it's better for his English, but also because there is such a wide range of excellent monolingual dictionaries, he can pick one exactly suited to his age and interests.

To bridge the gap between a bilingual dictionary and a monolingual dictionary designed for native speakers of English, the refugee should be given a monolingual English dictionary especially designed for those who are learning English as a Foreign Language. The refugee who arrives in the United States able to read and write English pretty well can use one of these dictionaries from the start and, if he learns to use it to its fullest potential, he will appreciate the wealth of information it contains — not just on words, their definitions and grammatical characteristics, but also in areas problematic to foreigners, such as abbreviations, affixes, weights, measures, common first names, country names, and so on.

ESL METHODS AND TECHNIQUES

Virtually all contemporary ESL materials and ESL programs share the conviction that oral communications skills are primary and should be emphasized throughout language learning. They concentrate on listening comprehension and speaking, the aural-oral skills. While there is general concensus about this fundamental principle, there is a great deal of variation, and even strong disagreement, about what particular teaching methodology is most effective in the language classroom. When we use the term, "the audio-lingual approach," we are taking it in a very general sense, to refer to the emphasis on oral communication. It is not meant as a specific teaching methodology, but rather it is intended to encompass the common assumptions that are held by practitioners of many different methods of teaching ESL. Those who follow such methodologies as "the Direct Method", the "SR — Situational-Reinforcement Approach," the "Silent Way," and "Counseling-Learning" all agree that in order to learn to communicate fully and effectively in English, an ESL student has to be taught English directly and orally. Learning about the language (the approach most often used in Vietnam — the "grammar-translation method") is not an effective way to learn to communicate in a second language.

Before you begin to teach an ESL text or set of materials, you must be fully conversant with the particular teaching approach it is based on. The teacher's manual should explain the general approach and its assumptions, and it will, in most cases, discuss drills and pacing, ways of getting meanings across without translating, and other general methods and techniques. However, certain materials are designed for trained and experienced professional ESL teachers, and for this reason may lack a teacher's manual altogether. Such materials should be avoided by inexperienced ESL teachers until they have mastered the techniques and methods which these materials assume.

Whatever the particular teaching methodology, any ESL class will have to teach English pronunciation and intonation patterns, vocabulary that is relevant to the age and interests of the student, and the structures of English sentences.

Teaching Pronunciation

It is vitally important to teach pronunciation in the ESL class, and it is especially so for Indochinese students. Understandable pronunciation is absolutely essential to someone who lives in an English-speaking environment. A sentence can be pretty badly mangled and still be understandable if it is pronounced well enough, and, conversely, the most flawlessly constructed sentence won't do its speaker a bit of good if his pronunciation can't be understood.

Pronunciation problems can almost always be traced to differences between the language the student speaks and the one he is trying to learn. By and large, the more points the sound systems of the two languages have in common (whether by accident or by history) the less trouble the student will have. The sound systems of Vietnamese and English have very little in common; as a consequence, the Vietnamese learner of English will have a terrible time with pronunciation.

It is therefore absolutely necessary for you to spend time working directly on pronunciation, and to get your student to make the effort necessary to speak understandably. If you overdo it, however, you're very likely to make him so self-conscious about his pronunciation that he'll clam up and become reluctant to talk at all. (This is a standard pedagogical problem in ESL.)

It's impossible to tell you exactly how much emphasis to put on pronunciation — too much depends on your student's personality — but some general pointers can be given. First,, don't correct every pronunciation mistake your student makes; if you do, you'll drive him batty. Focus on one pronunciation problem per lesson or two, and forget about the rest, except for gentle reminders. (After you've taught your student how to pronounce s and z at the ends of words, for example, you will have to remind him time and time again to put them on; a quick reminder will be all that's necessary, however.)

Second, don't worry about his pronunciation when he is making up sentences of his own, or answering real questions; he is struggling with meanings, vocabulary and structure all at once, and he can't worry about pronunciation as well. Later on, when he has a particular sentence pattern down pat and can easily make up sentences with it, you can get him to focus on his pronunciation, but not until everything else is easy.

Third, take every opportunity he gives you to praise him for pronouncing something well. Nothing encourages like encouragement.

All this discussion will probably not prepare you for the shock you will get when you hear your beginning student's first rendition of This is a book. If he is typical, he will pronounce the th of this as d; he will leave the s off this and the z off is; and he will pronounce the k of book in such a way that you won't hear it. The overall result is a sentence you would never recognize as This is a book if you didn't know beforehand that that was what was being said.

Don't be overwhelmed. First, spectacularly un-understandable pronunciation is often the result of just one pronunciation error; correct that error, and the overall pronunciation makes dramatic improvement. You will be surprised and gratified at the improvement in This is a book when your student can pronounce this and is with the final consonants! And remember, you don't have to tackle his pronunciation as a whole. You proceed with one problem at a time.

Finally, there's lots of help available, some of it directly aimed at speakers of Vietnamese and Cambodian. Quite often, the teacher's manual will give step-by-step instructions in teaching a particular pronunciation problem. There are also books available which deal with the particular pronunciation problems Indochinese speakers have, and which furnish drills and exercises to correct these problems. One text, which is available through ERIC User Services, is English for Vietnamese Speakers, Vol. I (Pronunciation), prepared by the Southeast Asian Regional English Project. It deals with Vietnamese pronunciation difficulties in a comprehensive way. Other valuable resources include Don Nilsen's Pronunciation Contrasts in English (Regents), and the ELS materials, Drills and Exercises in English Pronunciation, 2 Vols. (Collier Macmillan). With these resources, you can prepare the additional pronunciation work that most of your refugee students will need.

Teaching Structures

Along with learning what English words mean and how to pronounce them, the ESL student also has to directly learn how to combine them to produce English sentences that express what he wants to say. English — like every human language — organizes words in a highly orderly and systematic way to convey meaning. In learning to communicate in English, even at an elementary level, a person has to master basic English structures (or patterns). The structures of English have to be learned so thoroughly that they become automatic habits of speech. Mastering structures means becoming able to use them automatically and unconsciously.

The organization of English, of course, is quite different from the organization of the Indochinese languages. If an Indochinese student who had no training in the structures of English were to take some English words, he would try to order them in a way that seemed "natural" to him. That order would correspond to the order of Vietnamese or Cambodian sentence structures, not to English ones. Forced to rely on his notion of what is natural and what isn't, he would almost certainly come up with a sentence that an English speaker would find difficult to understand. Sometimes these "pidgin" sentences will get the meaning across, but very often they won't.

One way or another, being in an English-speaking environment will force the student to learn to communicate on a very basic level, but until he learns to control the structures of English, he isn't very likely to achieve the precision necessary to understand and express more complicated ideas. Without the ability to express to other English speakers precisely what he wants to say, the student will be severely handicapped whenever he tries to go beyond general conversation. He will have great difficulty with textbooks, ads, job descriptions, forms, and other critical material, even if he knows the vocabulary. In short, he will be limited — probably for the rest of his life — to areas of work and social relationships where precise or subtle communication is not important.

The ESL student has to be taught to master English structures. It is generally agreed that memorizing rules of grammar ("A noun is the name of a person, place, or thing") is not a particularly efficient way to proceed. There is a much more effective approach in which the student learns the language by speaking it. In this approach, the student uses the language while the teacher maintains various degrees of control. Some teachers feel that students — especially high school and adult students — respond more quickly when they make extensive use of drills and controlled responses. Other teachers place far greater emphasis on meaningful communication, and reduce drillwork as much as they can. Instead, they carefully set up situations in which typical structures and vocabulary are used in a meaningful way. Whatever the teaching methodology, the goals are quite similar: to teach the student to control the structures and vocabulary he needs to express his ideas.

The teacher introduces a structure first by speaking a model sentence, and, at the same time, establishing its meaning. In lower level classes this can usually be done through demonstration. The teacher says, for example, "The book is on the table," with natural speed and intonation, while indicating that in fact the book is indeed on the table. At this point, the teacher may initiate a simple repetition drill by having the student repeat this sentence after him. The student takes care to imitate the teacher's pronunciation as closely as possible. This is not, at first, an exercise in meaningful communication. The goal, rather, is to develop purely mechanical control of the sounds and sound patterns of the structure.

Once mechanical control is established, the teacher may begin another kind of exercise. He may ask, "Where is the book?" The student answers, "The book is on the table." Although this is still a highly controlled exercise, it is "meaningful" in the sense that the student's answer is elicited by what he sees, as well as the expectations of the drill. The teacher moves the book to a desk. He asks, "Where is the book?" Then the student answers, "The book is on the desk." Often the teacher will accept a variety of correct answers, "The book is on the desk," or "It's on the desk," or "It's on Charlie's green desk." In this way, the teacher is able to introduce meaningful sentences, and, in fact, the beginning of meaningful communication while retaining the control necessary to teach basic structures.

The teacher moves closer to real communication when he asks a question that only the student can answer correctly. He may say, "Where is your book? It isn't here. Where is it?" Now when the student answers, he is actually communicating with his teacher. He may say, "It's on my desk [at home]", or "It's on the floor." Whatever he answers, he is actually answering a real question. He is using English to communicate.

There is, inevitably, a certain amount of drillwork or repetitive work of one sort or another involved in learning English as a second language. In the recent past, some ESL programs used drills and repetition excessively, often losing sight of the goal of learning a second language — which is to use it to communicate with those who speak that language. Now, however, efficient, well-designed, and successful ESL programs use a great variety of teaching methods and techniques in the language class. Purely mechanical drills are kept to a minimum, and much greater emphasis is given to establishing situations in the classroom in which students can actually use their language skills to communicate.

Whatever method of teaching the ESL teacher follows, there are certain underlying problems about English structures that have to be dealt with. First, the teacher has to know which structures to teach. There are some features of English which seem quite obvious and natural to the native speaker of English, but which are quite perplexing to the foreign speaker. Here, the teacher has to rely on the professional linguist to isolate the structures which must be directly taught. Fortunately, most ESL materials have been designed by linguists and educators, so the teacher can solve this problem for the most part by relying on the ESL textbook. Some structures will have to be given special emphasis because of the ways in which English structures differ from those of Indochinese languages. It will help the teacher to know a little about the language of the student, because this knowledge will help him anticipate specific problem areas. For example, if the students are Vietnamese, the teacher can learn a good deal about their special problems in the next chapter and by reading the Indochinese Refugee Education Guide, "Teaching English Structures to the Vietnamese" (General Information Series No. 11). These give a brief overview of some especially difficult areas of contrast between English and Vietnamese. It will aid the teacher in adapting an ESL text to meet the particular needs of Vietnamese.

Another area of difficulty is the sequencing of structures, or determining the order in which English structures should be taught. It makes basic sense to teach simpler patterns before more complicated ones, but it is often difficult for the non-linguist to tell which ones are simpler than others. Once again, good ESL materials will provide this guidance, and the teacher can rely on the materials to introduce structures in the proper sequence.

These aspects of teaching ESL — isolation of structures and their sequencing — have been built into ESL textbooks and materials. By using ESL materials carefully, and by following the teacher's manual, the native speaker of English can teach English structures effectively, secure in the knowledge that the text will take care of those aspects of English teaching that require specialized linguistic training. Adapting these materials to the specialized needs of Indochinese students is largely a matter of giving special emphasis to English structures which have been identified as problematic. In most cases, this is within the capabilities of the conscientious teacher. The teacher will continue to teach the structures in the basic ESL text, and will continue to present them in the sequence in which they are introduced.

Teaching Vocabulary

The vocabulary you will teach, especially in early classes, is generally determined by the particular text you have chosen to use. ESL materials are written for a wide variety of different audiences — young children, high school students, pre-freshman college students, and so on. These materials differ from one another largely on the basis of vocabulary and situations. They all teach the same structures, and follow pretty much the same sequence, and they all teach the sounds and sound patterns of English. But they teach quite different vocabulary because ESL students of different ages have different immediate needs and goals.

But no teacher will limit vocabulary to what happens to appear in the textbook. Additional words and phrases are introduced as they come up in the course of the lesson — and in the student's experiences outside the classroom. When it is possible, the teacher will incorporate new vocabulary into the structures the students are learning and the ones they have already mastered. Vocabulary is then treated in context, not as long lists of words to be memorized.

It isn't difficult to help elementary and high school students develop vocabulary rapidly. A great deal of the vocabulary they need to know immediately will be contained in the ESL texts that are designed to be used in the classroom. Additional words can be added easily.

It is somewhat more difficult for adult and young adult students, especially adults who are intent on finding job-related vocabulary, and vocabulary for survival information. There are relatively few ESL texts that are specifically intended for this audience. In addition, those few texts written for adults of necessity treat vocabulary in a fairly general way. The student won't find in any textbook the particular vocabulary he needs immediately in order to fill out a Medicaid form, for example. There is a simple reason for this: government forms are continually being revised, and the vocabulary continues to change. For this reason, ESL texts, even those which are written to treat "survival information" needs, contain a relatively general vocabulary.

But this is not a great problem for the ESL teacher. Specific and immediately relevant vocabulary can easily be introduced — such as the vocabulary of the Medicaid form or a job application or the general world of work. Once again, the teacher introduces new words, while maintaining control over the structures in which they are used.

A subject which often arises in high school ESL classes is that of slang. Your students will hear a lot of slang, at school, at work and in other public places, and they will ask you what certain words and expressions mean. Should you teach slang? Obviously, you will have to teach some slang because slang is such a common feature of American English. However, you and your students will be happier if you wait until the student is fairly well advanced in his study of English. There are many reasons why it is better to hold off.

The primary problem in teaching slang is basically a problem of usage, of style. It's quite easy to teach slang as vocabulary equivalents: rip off = to steal or cheat; chick = girl; guy = fellow. But teaching your student to use slang is quite a different problem. If slang is taught in the classroom, then the teacher must also teach when a given style of language is appropriate, and this is not as easy as teaching vocabulary equivalents. Distinguishing style appropriateness is the product of years of living in a given culture. We, as native speakers in our native culture, know that certain language (both in terms of vocabulary and structures) is appropriate with our peer group but that it may be inappropriate (indeed, may be offensive) to another group, say our teachers or grandparents.

It's also true that some slang terms are either intrinsically offensive ("swear" words which are commonly used) or are offensive by association. Few women would be amused by someone referring to them as "chicks". On the other hand, few men would be offended if someone referred to them as "guys". Teaching these distinctions is very difficult and the student would be unwise to use slang, at least initially. You might want to teach slang expressions only after the students had thoroughly mastered the words which the slang replaces, and then primarily for comprehension, rather than use.

There is also another problem with slang that should be mentioned. The use of slang may indicate a fluency with the language that the learner simply does not possess. If a learner uses slang in conversation, his auditor may think that slang presents no problem and respond with more of the same. This can lead very rapidly to a breakdown in communication as the ESL student tries to understand the slang which the other person is using.

Summary

As you are looking for vocabulary items, and planning your lessons to include them, you should never lose sight of the fact that the student must have basic control of sentence patterns and an adequate pronunciation, in order to communicate. No matter how much vocabulary your student knows, he will not be able to communicate if he can't put them together into sentences which other English speakers can understand. So while he focuses on learning the vocabulary and remembering it, you should see to it that — except when you're teaching the meanings of the words themselves — he always puts the words into some sort of grammatical framework. Remember that your goal is not to teach the student a large, passive vocabulary which he can't use because he doesn't have a full control of the basic English structures. Nor is your goal merely to train him to respond to drills and pattern repetition. Rather, your goal is to give him all the language skills necessary to communicate his ideas fully and with ease and fluency to his English speaking teachers, employers, and friends. These skills are not abstract bits of information about English grammar. Rather, they include the active ability to produce English sounds, use English sentence structures, and control the vocabulary relevant for everyday communication.

II

SOURCES OF DIFFICULTY IN LEARNING ENGLISH FOR VIETNAMESE, KHMER AND LAO

The particular difficulties with English that the refugee child will have can nearly always be traced to differences between English and his native language. In both pronunciation and structure, the points he will find hardest to learn, then later to remember, will be those points which differ the most from his native language. The Vietnamese student of English, for example, will have difficulty remembering to put the plural s on English nouns, because in Vietnamese the plural is not marked with a suffix; on the other hand, he will have no trouble at all with the English order of subject, then verb, then object, because in Vietnamese the order of subject, verb and object is the same. Another example, this one in pronunciation: the Vietnamese student of English will have trouble hearing the difference between tank and thank, and learning how to pronounce thank, because th does not exist in Vietnamese; he will have no trouble, on the other hand, with lane and rain, because l and r both exist at the beginnings of words in Vietnamese.

Sources of Difficulty for Vietnamese Learners of English

(Remember, here, that we are talking about sounds, and not letters of the alphabet. While Vietnamese spells a certain sound with the letters th, for example, that sound is not the same as the sounds that are spelled in English as th. To avoid confusion, we will, when necessary, give examples of the sounds we are dealing with, e.g. "th as in 'either'".)

Sounds which occur in English but not in Vietnamese

These are sounds which will give the Vietnamese learner of English the most trouble. He will mistake them for the closest Vietnamese or English equivalent and pronounce them accordingly, so he must be directly taught to distinguish them from other sounds, then to pronounce them properly. These sounds are listed below, together with English sounds they will be confused with:

Sound:	Confused with:
th as in 'ether'	t as in 'tell' or s as in 'see'
th as in 'either'	d as in 'dog' or z as in 'zero'
p as in 'pin'	b as in 'boy'
g as in 'gay'	k as in 'king'
j as in 'gin'	z as in 'Zen'
zh as in 'pleasure'	z as in 'zero' or j as in 'gin'
i as in 'pin'	ee as in 'beet'

Sound:	Confused with:
e as in 'bet'	a as in 'bat'
a as in 'bat'	e as in 'bet' or ah as in 'father'
oo as in 'book'	oo as in 'boot' or uh as in 'above'

Sounds which pattern differently in Vietnamese and English

The sounds of Vietnamese and English, like the sounds in all other languages, occur in patterns: some sounds occur in clusters, others don't; some occur initially (at the beginnings of words), others occur only finally (at the ends of words); and so on. As might be expected, the sound patterns of Vietnamese and English are often different; this means, among other things, that there are sounds which occur in both languages, but which pattern differently. Unless the Vietnamese learner of English is taught the English patterns for these sounds, he will transfer the Vietnamese patterns onto his English, with often un-understandable results.

One area in which the consonants of Vietnamese and English pattern differently is in their occurrence in final position. Relatively few consonants occur in final position in Vietnamese. All the English consonants except h, however, do occur finally. Some of these will, for a variety of reasons, cause no major problems (like final -b); others will. The consonants which occur finally in English but not Vietnamese are listed below, along with the sounds they are likely to be confused with. (Remember that these sounds are problematic in final position only.)

English final consonants	Likely to be confused with:
-b as in 'dab'	-p
-d as in 'bad'	-t
-f as in 'laugh'	-p
-v as in 'love'	-b or -p
-s as in 'bass'	
-z as in 'jazz'	-sh 'push' or -s
-sh as in 'rush'	
-ch as in 'much'	-sh 'push'
-l as in 'all'	-n 'pawn'
-r as in 'car'	-r will simply not be heard: 'car' and 'caw' will sound alike

The final consonants in Vietnamese, besides being fewer in number than in English, also differ in character. They are what linguists call 'unreleased', i.e. in their production the air flow from the lungs is stopped somewhere in the mouth, but not released for a fraction of a second; it is these unreleased consonants which give spoken Vietnamese its abrupt, jerky flavor in the ears of an American listener. English has unreleased consonants (-*p*, -*t* and -*k* in final position, to be exact: say "Stop!" and don't open your mouth again after you say the -*p*, and you will have produced an unreleased -*p*), but they occur far less frequently than Vietnamese unreleased consonants. The upshot of all this is that the Vietnamese learner of English must be taught to release final -*p*, -*t*, -*k*, -*m*, -*n*, and -*ng*; the unreleased Vietnamese counterparts of these pronounced in English words will simply not be heard by Americans, and will give the impression of not having been pronounced at all.

Another problem of patterning exists with words which start with *t*- and *k*- in English, like *kind*, *tail*, and so on. Vietnamese initial *t*'s and *k*'s are unaspirated (and the Vietnamese speaker will un-aspirate initial *p*, also, when he learns to pronounce it), whereas English initial *t*'s and *k*'s are aspirated; in other words, the English initial *t*- or *k*- is pronounced with a slight puff of air following it (which you can feel if you hold the back of your hand up to your mouth and say *kind*, *tall*, or just *t* or *k*), and Vietnamese initial *t*- or *k*- is pronounced without the puff of air. (English has unaspirated *p*, *t*, and *k*, but not in initial position.) To American ears, initial unaspirated *t* sounds like *d*, and unaspirated initial *k* sounds like *g*, so it is necessary to teach the Vietnamese learner of English to aspirate his initial *t*'s and *k*'s in English.

Take heart: these patterns problems are far, far easier to correct than they are to read about.

As we mentioned earlier, Vietnamese has no consonant clusters (i.e., sequences of consonants in words). English, on the other hand, does — *initially* in words ('*pr*ay', '*tr*y', '*cr*y', '*pl*ease', '*cl*ean', '*str*ike', '*thr*ead', and so on), *medially* ('ba*sk*et', 'clu*st*er', ba*dl*y', 'foo*tn*ote', 'u*nl*ike', and so on), and *finally* ('to*ld*', 'si*xth*', 'se*nt*', 'le*ngth*', 'vowe*ls*', and so on). This difference in patterning results in the Vietnamese student's having difficulty pronouncing consonants in sequence, over and above the difficulties he might have in pronouncing the consonants by themselves. Since there are so many consonant clusters in English, this is probably the most immediately noticeable difficulty Vietnamese learners of English will have. They will try to "break up" a consonant cluster by inserting a vowel between the consonants (saying, for example, "suhtop" for "stop", etc.), or simply by dropping the second or third consonant (saying, for example, "tol" for "told", etc.)

Final consonant clusters involve grammatical problems in addition to phonological ones. The English plural ('book - book*s*'), possessive ('John - John'*s*'), third person singular ('I bite - he bites'), and the past tense ('talk - talked') are all formed by adding s, z, t or d to the ends of words, thereby creating final consonant clusters. The Vietnamese learner of English will have difficulty with the consonant clusters, because Vietnamese does not have clusters, and he will also have difficulty remembering to put the plural, past tense, third person singular or possessive endings onto the words in the first place, because Vietnamese does not have grammatical endings. All of which means that his English teacher must pay special attention to the following final clusters:

-bd as in 'rubbed'
-gd as in 'tugged'
-vd as in 'loved'
-thd as in 'breathed'
-zd as in 'buzzed'
-jd as in 'judged'
-md as in 'bombed'
-nd as in 'banned'
-ngd as in 'banged'
-bz as in 'rubs'
-gz as in 'bags'
-vz as in 'loves'
-thz as in 'breathes'
-mz as in 'frames'
-nz as in 'bans'
-ngz as in 'bangs'
-lz as in 'bills'
-rz as in 'bars'
-ld as in 'boiled'
-rd as in 'barred'
-pt as in 'rapped'
-kt as in 'packed'
-ft as in 'laughed'
-tht as in 'frothed'
-st as in 'passed'
-cht as in 'watched'
-ps as in 'raps'
-ts as in 'bats'
-ks as in 'books'
-fs as in 'staffs'
-ths as in 'baths'

Intonation

Vietnamese, like Chinese, is a tone language: every word has associated with it a particular "tone of voice"; if a speaker does not pronounce the correct tone for a word, he either mispronounces the word, or pronounces another word entirely. English has "tones", too (called intonation patterns), but they are associated with whole sentences, and not with single words. (The difference in meaning between the sentence "He's a doctor." and the question "He's a doctor?" is carried solely by the different intonation patterns.) Vietnamese students of English must be taught to associate tones with sentences, and not words, and they must be taught the important intonation patterns directly; the most commonly-occurring of these are:

Sentence-intonation: "He's a doctor." (Heavy stress on doctor; voice pitch goes down at the end of the sentence.)

Yes-no question intonation: "Is he a doctor?" (Heavy stress on doctor; voice pitch goes up at the end of the sentence.)

Wh- question intonation: "What does he do?" (Heavy stress on do, voice pitch goes down at the end of the sentence.)

There are, of course, intonation patterns associated with sentences in Vietnamese, but not enough is known about them and their interaction with the Vietnamese tones. At any rate, the Vietnamese learner of English must be taught to focus on sentence intonation in English, or he will confuse himself looking for tones that aren't there.

Structures

In choosing structures to discuss, we have focussed on just those which are difficult for the Vietnamese student in particular. We have not discussed such problems as irregular verbs like sink (sank, sunk instead of sinked, sinked, sinked) because they are inconsistencies in the grammar of English per se, and not problems which are due to differences between Vietnamese and English. Because everyone learning English (including native-speaking toddlers!) has trouble with such things, ESL texts devote a good deal of attention to them, and so you will generally not have to worry about them.

We have also only dealt with the structures that occur in simple sentences. It is in simple sentences that the worst problems occur, anyway: it never seems to be the intricacies of complex sentences that plague the student, it's the picky little details like plurals that make his life difficult.

1. Suffixes

There are no suffixes in Vietnamese; as a consequence, the Vietnamese learner of English will probably have trouble remembering to attach the necessary suffixes to English words.

We are not talking here about what linguists call derivational suffixes. Derivational suffixes like -ion (attention), -ive (attentive), and -ant (attendant), do not combine freely with all words (note that while -ion will go on intend to produce intention, neither -ive nor -ant will: intendive and intendant are not English words); the Vietnamese student, and the native English speaker, for that matter, learns these suffixes as part of individual vocabulary items, and only later — if at all — notices the relationship between, say, attend, attention, attentive and attendant (a relationship which generally has to do with the historical origins of the words).

The suffixes we *are* talking about are what linguists call inflectional suffixes. These are suffixes which, first, play an important role in the grammar of English, and which, second, combine freely with all words of a certain class (like nouns or verbs). Because of their grammatical role and the frequency of their occurrence, these suffixes are important for the Vietnamese student to master. Fortunately, English has only a handful of inflectional suffixes; they are discussed one by one below.

The plural -s English regularly forms the plural of a noun by adding *-s* (actually, the plural suffix is pronounced either *-s*, *-z*, or something approximating *-iz*, depending on what the sound that immediately precedes the suffix is): whenever we want to talk about more than one book, for example, we must add *s* to get *books*, *books on pinochle*, and so on. As we mentioned before, Vietnamese has no plural suffix; as the following sentences illustrate, the form of the noun (in this case the noun *sách* 'book') remains the same, and the number of the noun is indicated by other words in the sentences.

Tôi cần sách. 'I need books.'
'I' 'need' 'book'

Tôi cần một cuốn sách. 'I need a book.'
'I' 'need' 'one' 'piece' 'book'

Tôi cần ba cuốn sách. 'I need three books.'
'I' 'need' '3' 'piece' 'book'

Tôi cần vài cuốn sách. 'I need a few books.'
'I' 'need' 'few' 'piece' 'book'

The difficulty the Vietnamese student has with the plural *-s* is compounded by the fact that neither *s* nor *z* occurs at the ends of words in Vietnamese; it is further compounded by the fact that there are no consonant clusters (i.e. sequences of consonants like *ts*, *gz*, *sks*, etc.) either. All of which means that both the grammar and the pronunciation of the plural will cause problems.

The possessive -s One of the ways English indicates possession is the possessive with "apostrophe *s*", as in phrases like *John's book*, *the store's closing hours*, *your father's moustache* and *the razor's edge*. The "apostrophe *s*", which is pronounced exactly the same as the plural *s* (with the *-s*, *-z* and *-iz* (alternatives), gives the Vietnamese student the same problems in pronunciation. It gives him grammatical problems also, as the possessive in Vietnamese is expressed in a form closer to the English possessive construction with "of" as in *the top of the table* or *the point of the story*. The Vietnamese student will have no trouble mastering this "of" construction (notice that it doesn't involve suffixes), but he will probably try to use it in places where the "apostrophe *s*" must be used: *John's book* is ungrammatical as *the book of John* unless you're talking about the New Testament. Here's an example of a possessive phrase in Vietnamese:

Tôi cần cuốn sách của ông Quang.* 'I need Mr. Quang's book.'
'I' 'need' 'piece' 'book' 'property' 'Mr. Quang'

---

*These *cuốn*'s, which we keep translating as "piece", sometimes translate better as "the", as we will explain in the section on articles.

The word *của*, which we have translated as "property" because it is a noun in Vietnamese, is nonetheless on a superficial level directly parallel to the English preposition "of". Vietnamese possessive phrases are, by the way, ambiguous in the same way that English possessives are: *Mr. Quang's book*, like *cuốn sách của ông Quang*, can mean "the book that Mr. Quang wrote", "the book that Mr. Quang owns", "the book in Mr. Quang's possession at the moment", and so on.

The -er comparative and -est superlative Vietnamese students will have trouble with sentences like *John is taller than Bill* and *John is the tallest boy in the class*, in that they will forget to put the *-er* and *-est* suffixes on the appropriate adjectives. The Vietnamese sentence which expresses the idea of the comparative is parallel to the English one, but without a suffix:

Minh cao hơn Thăng. 'Minh is taller than Thăng.'
'Minh' 'tall' 'than' 'Thăng'

Minh cao hơn hết ở trong lớp. 'Minh is taller than everyone in the class.'
'Minh' 'tall' 'than' 'all' 'at' 'inside' 'class'

(*hơn*, which we are translating as 'than', really means something like 'superior-to'; the sentence *Minh hơn Thăng* means 'Minh is superior to Thăng'.)

The superlative in Vietnamese is expressed either with *hơn*, as in the sentence above about Minh being taller than everyone, or with the word *nhất*, which translates roughly as 'number one', 'tops', or 'most':

Minh cao nhất lớp. 'Minh is the tallest in the class.'
'Minh' 'tall' 'tops' 'class'

-ly adverbs In Vietnamese, the same form of a word serves as both adjective and adverb: the word *dẹp*, for example, remains the same whether it is being used as an adjective 'pretty', or an adverb 'prettily':

Cô ấy dẹp. 'She is pretty.'
'she' 'pretty'

Cái dẹp mắc hơn. 'The pretty one is more expensive.'
'the' 'pretty' 'expensive' 'superior'

Nó vẽ dẹp. 'He draws prettily.'
'he' 'draw' 'pretty'

The Vietnamese learner of English will, correspondingly, forget to put the *-ly* suffix on his adverbs (or, in the case of adjectives like *good*, forget to use the adverb form *well*), and come up with sentences like 'He draws pretty' or 'He sings good.'

In some dialects of English, sentences like 'He draws pretty.' and 'He sings good.' are perfectly all right; in other dialects, however, they are considered incorrect. To be on the safe side, the Vietnamese student should be taught to put the -ly suffix on his adverbs, so that he will be using adverbs "correctly" wherever he finds himself.

-ing forms used as nouns In English, we frequently convert verbs into nouns by tacking on the -ing suffix and proceeding as usual: sentences like Seeing is believing, Climbing mountains is dangerous, and I don't approve of his eating goldfish before dinner are examples of these -ing nouns (called gerunds by grammarians). In Vietnamese, verbs can be used as nouns without changing their form: the verb uống 'drink' can be used as a verb:

Tôi uống sửa. 'I drink milk.'
'I' 'drink' 'milk'

or it can be used as a noun:

Uống sửa là tôi đau bụng. 'Drinking milk gives me a stomach ache.'
'drink' 'milk' 'is' 'I' 'ache' 'stomach'

Here is another example, this time with the verb di 'go' or 'leave':

Minh đi nhà thường. 'Minh is going to the hospital.'
'Minh' 'go' 'hospital'

Đi một ngày đàng, học một sàng khôn. 'Even a one-day journey is worth a basketful of wisdom.'
'go' 'one' 'day' 'road' 'learn' 'one' 'basket' 'wisdom'

(This last sentence is a famous proverb in Vietnamese.)

The Vietnamese learner of English will try to use verbs as nouns without putting the -ing suffix on, and produce sentences like Learn English is hard for 'Learning English is hard.' or I appreciate you send me some books for 'I would appreciate your sending me some books'.

-ing forms used as adjectives We also use the -ing suffix to change verbs into adjectives. In phrases like dancing bear and running water, the verbs dance and run are changed to dancing and running via the -ing suffix, then used as adjectives modifying bear and water. In Vietnamese, verbs can function as adjectives, but — like verbs functioning as nouns — they do so without benefit of suffix. The verb chảy 'flow', for example, is an ordinary verb in the following sentence:

Nước chảy. 'Water flows.'
'water' 'flow'

but it can with no modification be used as an adjective:

Nước chảy sạch hơn nước đọng. 'Running water is cleaner
'water' 'flow' 'clean' 'superior' 'water' 'stagnant' than stagnant water.'

The Vietnamese student of English will have a tendency to use verbs as adjectives without putting the -ing suffix on; this lack of suffix, combined with problems of adjective placement (in Vietnamese, they go after the noun; in English, they go before) can lead to undecipherable sentences like Mothers do work very concerned about that problem. (What was meant here was 'Working mothers are very concerned about that problem' !)

2. Tenses

One of the most important features of the English language is its system of tenses. In just about every sentence, time relationships — whether present, past or future, in progress, already over with, and so on — are carefully indicated: with a suffix, an auxiliary or helping verb like have, be, or will, or a combination of suffix and auxiliary. An example of just part of the English tense system is given in the sentences below; note how the meaning of each sentence changes as the tenses are juggled.

I was eating breakfast when the package arrived.
I ate breakfast when the package arrived.
I had eaten breakfast when the package arrived.
I will be eating breakfast when the package arrives.
I will eat breakfast when the package arrives.
I will have eaten breakfast when the package arrives.

Native speakers of English can juggle tenses with the greatest of ease, and are generally unaware of the interactions between auxiliaries and suffixes that produce the kinds of time relationships exemplified in the sentences above. Speakers of Vietnamese, on the other hand, find the English tense system very difficult indeed, because there is no one grammatical feature in Vietnamese which corresponds directly to it.

To begin with, any overt grammatical indication whether something is happening now, in the past or in the future is often completely lacking in a Vietnamese sentence; the situation alone tells the listener this type of information. The following sentence, for example, can mean either "I'm buying a sweater and looking for some boots," "I bought a sweater and looked for some boots," or "I will buy a sweater and look for some boots.":

Tôi mua áo len và kiếm mua giày bốt.
'I' 'buy' 'sweater' 'and' 'look-for' 'buy' 'boot'

This sentence will have one or the other of the meanings given above depending on what has gone on previously in the conversation: if the speaker is talking about his shopping trip yesterday, it means "I bought..."; if he is discussing his plans for next Saturday morning, it means "I will buy..."; and if he is answering the question "What are you doing here at Macy's?" it means "I'm buying..."

Even when time is overtly indicated in a Vietnamese sentence, the means for doing so do not correspond to tenses in English. One of the ways of specifying tim a Vietnamese sentence like the one above involves the use of words and phrases like hôm qua 'yesterday', ngày mai 'tomorrow' or sáng mai, lúc 9 giờ 20 'tomorrow morning at 20 after 9'. Words and phrases like these function just like their counterparts in English. But in English, the time phrase and tense in a sentence must "agree" ('I will eat breakfast yesterday' is funny because a future verb occurs with a past time word), whereas in Vietnamese the verb form doesn't change, whatever the time word or phrases. A consequence of all this is that the Vietnamese learner of English will tend to leave tenses off his verbs, and produce sentences like 'Yesterday I buy a sweater', which, although it is perfectly understandable, is not correct.

The other way to be more specific about time in a Vietnamese sentence is to use one or the other of a series of words which behave — on a superficial level, at least — like the English auxiliaries can, may, will, should and so on. Some of these Vietnamese "auxiliaries" have to do with time, some don't; in the following sentences, note how the meaning changes as one Vietnamese "auxiliary" is substituted for another:

Tôi hay uống nước trà. 'I often drink tea.'
'I' 'often' 'drink' 'tea'

Tôi mới uống nước trà. 'I just drank tea.'
'just'

Tôi sắp uống nước trà. 'I am about to drink tea.'
'about to'

Tôi sẽ uống nước trà. 'I intend to drink tea.'
'intend to'

Tôi đã uống nước trà. 'I drank tea.'
'past'

Tôi đang uống nước trà. 'I am drinking tea.', 'I was drinking tea.'
'continue'

Tôi cứ uống nước trà. 'I drink tea anyway.'
'anyway'

Tôi thường uống nước trà.   'I usually drink tea.'
'usually'

Tôi có uống nước trà.   'I did drink tea.'
emphatic

The Vietnamese learner of English will have a tendency to equate English tenses with these "auxiliaries". Sometimes this will work out all right (the English future, for example, consists of the auxiliary will plus the verb with no suffixes; it is thus parallel to the sentences above in construction). Sometimes it won't work out all right (the English present perfect tense, as in 'I have eaten eggplant', involves not only the auxiliary have, but also the past participle eaten; its construction is not parallel to that in the sentences above, and will cause problems.)

There is another "auxiliary" in Vietnamese — the word rồi, which occurs after the verb (unlike the auxiliaries just discussed) and which indicates that the action of the verb took place prior to a given point in time. (In linguistic parlance, it is called a perfect aspect marker, and can be equated very, very roughly with our present or past perfect tenses.) Vietnamese students of English very often equate rồi with the English adverb already, and try to express a variety of past tenses by leaving the verb tenseless and tacking on already. Watch out for this, and be aware that the student who says "I go already" really means "I have gone", "I had gone", or "I went", and correct him accordingly.

To summarize, English tenses will cause problems on two major fronts. First, it is not necessary to indicate tense in most Vietnamese sentences, so the Vietnamese learner of English will have a tendency to leave tenses out of his English sentences. Second, there is nothing in Vietnamese which corresponds to the auxiliary + suffix combinations which comprise many English tenses, and so the Vietnamese learner of English will need extensive practice to get and keep these tenses straight.

3. be Sentences

Sentences in which the verb is a form of be, like Goldfish are pretty and John is hungry, will give the Vietnamese learner of English trouble on two counts.

The first problem is that be is one of those inconsistencies we talked about on page 54: it is the only verb in the language with special forms for first, second and third person subjects (we say I am rather than I is, you are rather than you am, and so on). These alternations are thoroughly presented and drilled in ESL textbooks because they give all learners of English trouble; chances are that you will find the treatment of them in your textbook adequate for your students' needs.

The other problem with be sentences — and this one is a problem for Vietnamese speakers in particular — is that in the Vietnamese parallels of some English be sentences, the equivalent of be simply does not occur. To be specific, the Vietnamese equivalent of be (which is là) does not occur in sentences with predicate adjectives. (In case you don't remember, the word pretty functions as a predicate adjective in the sentence Goldfish are pretty!)

For example, the Vietnamese equivalent of the sentence "Minh is a student" is

Minh	là	học trò.
'Minh'	'be'	'student'

in which là, the equivalent of English be, occurs. (In this sentence, in both English and Vietnamese, học trò and student are functioning as predicate nouns.)

On the other hand, the Vietnamese equivalent of the sentence "Goldfish are pretty" is

Cá vàng	đẹp
'goldfish'	'pretty'

in which there is no là at all.

The upshot of these disappearing là's is that it will feel 'natural' to the Vietnamese student of English to leave out be, and to come up with sentences like "Goldfish pretty", or "John nice". This, combined with the is-am-are-was-were problem, means that the student will require extra work on be, especially with predicate adjectives.

(Incidentally, là is like all verbs in Vietnamese in that it can refer to present, past or future depending on context.)

4. Questions

Another area of difficulty for Vietnamese learners of English is English questions. There are two types of questions, from a grammatical point of view: yes-no questions (those which are answered by yes or no, like "Did John see the goldfish?") and what linguists call WH- questions (questions that involve words starting with wh like what, who, when, which and so on, e.g. "What did John see?"). Both types of questions involve rearranging the word order of the verb phrase, and therefore cause trouble; word order in Vietnamese does not change from statement to corresponding question.

yes-no questions Yes-no questions in English differ from their corresponding statements in that the first word of the verb phrase is moved to the beginning of the sentence. In the question which corresponds to the statement "John will buy a goldfish", for example, the word will, which is the first element in the verb phrase will buy, is moved to the beginning of the question, to get "Will John buy a goldfish?".

If the verb phrase consists of only one word, as in, for example, the sentence "John eats goldfish," we English speakers conjure up a do with the appropriate tense, and move it up to the beginning, as in "Does John eat goldfish?". And if the verb phrase is one of the single-word forms of be, as in "John is a bit strange," we forget about the do and just move the be verb up to the beginning: "Is John a bit strange?"

Yes-no questions in Vietnamese are nowhere near so messy. They differ from their corresponding statements only in that the word không 'no, not' has been tacked on at the end of the sentence. Note that the following sentence and its corresponding question are exactly alike except for the không:

Minh ăn cá vàng. 'Minh eats goldfish.'
'Minh' 'eats' 'goldfish'
Minh ăn cá vàng không? 'Does Minh eat goldfish?'
'Minh' 'eats' 'goldfish' 'no'

WH-questions WH- questions in English differ from their corresponding statements in two ways: first, a WH- word (like who, what, when, where, why, which) replaces the appropriate element in the statement, and is moved to the beginning of the sentence; second, the verb phrase is split up as it is for yes-no questions. The WH- question "What has John bought?", for example, differs from the corresponding statement "John has bought a goldfish," in that first, the phrase a goldfish is replaced by the WH- word what and moved to the beginning of the sentence; and the has of the verb phrase has been relocated in front of the subject John.

Messy as all this is, it gets worse: if the WH- word is the subject of the sentence, the verb phrase is left alone, so that the question corresponding to the statement "John ate my goldfish," is "Who ate my goldfish?", instead of "Did who eat my goldfish?", as it would be if English grammar were consistent.

Vietnamese WH- questions are much more straightforward. In them, the WH- word (like cái gì 'what', tại sao 'why', ai 'who' and so on) (which are of course not WH- words because they don't start with wh, but this is not the time to quibble over details) simply replaces the appropriate element in the sentence, and everything else is left as is. Note that the following statement and a corresponding WH- question differ only in that the word cái gì 'what' appears in place of the phrase cá vàng 'goldfish':

Minh ăn cá vàng. 'Minh eats goldfish.'
'Minh' 'eat' 'goldfish'
Minh ăn cái gì? 'What does Minh eat?'
'Minh' 'eat' 'what'

The upshot of these differences in the structure of questions in Vietnamese and English is that it will be hard for Vietnamese learners of English to get used to the differences in word order between English statements and questions. They will need extra practice on the question forms of each tense, as well as on questions themselves.

(A word about *whom*. Note that in the previous discussion of questions the use of *whom* was not mentioned. It was deliberately ignored for several reasons, the most compelling of which is that in everyday conversational English, *whom* is simply not used by the vast majority of English speakers, however educated they might be. The time to teach *whom* is after the student has learned spoken English, and when he is learning the special structures and conventions of expository writing.)

5. Negatives

Negative statements in English will be difficult for Vietnamese students for much the same reasons that questions are: negatives involve the same breaking-up of the verb phrase, the same use of the conjured-up *do*, and the same irregular behavior of the verb *be*.

For example, the negative of the sentence *John will buy a guppy* is *John will not buy a guppy*; the negative word *not* has been inserted between the elements of the verb phrase *will buy*. Negatives of sentences with only one word in their verb phrase, like *John bought a guppy*, are formed by conjuring up the *do*, attaching to it the appropriate tense, and inserting it along with *not* before the verb: *John did not buy a guppy*. Except when the single-word verb phrase is one of the forms of *be*, as in *Guppies are too small to eat*; in that case, the *not* is simply put after the *be* form: *Guppies are not too small to eat*.

As you must have guessed by now, none of these shenanigans are involved in the Vietnamese negative. One makes a Vietnamese sentence negative simply by inserting the word *không* 'not' in front of the verb. For example, the sentence

Minh *mua* *cá mặt trăng*. 'Minh bought a guppy.'
'Minh' 'buy' 'guppy'

has the following negative:

Minh *không* *mua* *cá mặt trăng*. 'Minh didn't buy a guppy.'
'Minh' 'not' 'buy' 'guppy'

The only exception is with sentences in which the verb is *là* (which, you remember from page 61, is equivalent to *be*); in this case, the phrase *không phải* 'not correct' is inserted before the *là* to negate the sentence, so that the negative of the sentence

*Cá mặt trăng** *là* *một loại cá vô dụng*. 'Guppies are useless fish.'
'guppy' 'be' 'useless fish'

is

Cá mặt trăng *không phải* *là* *một loại cá vô dụng*. 'Guppies are not useless fish.'
'guppy' 'not correct' 'be' 'useless fish'

Because the English negative is so much more involved than the Vietnamese negative, it will take the Vietnamese student some time to get used to forming English negatives properly. He should be given extra practice in forming the negatives of all the tenses.

A word on contractions: most ESL texts present contractions of *not*, as in *haven't*, *didn't*, *aren't* and so on, at the same time as — if not before — they present the non-contracted forms. They do so for the very sound reason that in all but the stiffest, most formal speech and writing, contractions of the negative are universally used. If you don't teach the contracted forms (which are pronounced quite differently from the non-contracted ones), your students won't recognize them in ordinary conversation, and for a while will be terribly confused.

6. Articles

The use of the articles *a/an* and *the* is one of the most difficult aspects of English to teach, primarily because it is one of those areas of English grammar that we don't understand well enough to describe precisely. We know that in general *a/an* is used when we are referring to *one* instance of something or someone indefinite or general, as in *John ate a guppy*; we also know that in general if we want to refer to *more than one* something or someone indefinite or general, we use the bare plural of the noun with no article, as in *John eats guppies*; and we know that if we want to refer to someone or something definite or specific, we use the article *the* with both singular and plural nouns, as in *John ate the guppy belonging to his sister*, and *John ate the guppies belonging to his sister*. We can't, however, explain the numerous exceptions to these "rules", like the sentence *The goldfish is a member of the carp family*, in which the definite article *the* is used even though the sentence is talking about all goldfish, and not just one goldfish in particular.

To further complicate the picture, there are many nouns in English (called *mass nouns* or *non-count nouns*) which can't occur with *a/an* or in the bare plural. The nouns *water*, *chalk*, *furniture*, *soap* and *milk* are examples: note that we cannot say *Bring me a soap* or *Bring me soaps*. We can't use numbers with these mass nouns, either: *Bring me three soaps* is ungrammatical.

---

*The staff at the National Indochinese Clearinghouse is not sure that *cá mặt trăng* is really a guppy. We feel that it is close enough, however; besides, this is a bulletin on language, not fish.

Vietnamese makes a distinction between general and specific, but not through the use of words parallel to *a*/*an* and *the*. It utilizes, instead, a system which is in many respects parallel to the behavior of English mass nouns. Look at the following sentences with the mass noun *chalk*, which translate almost word for word between the languages:

Tôi cần phấn. 'I need chalk.'
'I' 'need' 'chalk'

Tôi cần một viên phấn. 'I need a piece of chalk.'
'I' 'need' 'one' 'piece' 'chalk'

Tôi cần ba viên phấn. 'I need three pieces of chalk.'
'I' 'need' '3' 'piece' 'chalk'

Now compare these Vietnamese sentences with the ones on pages 55 and 56; you will see that the word *sách* 'book' behaves the same way as *phấn* 'chalk'.

The word *viên* in the preceding sentences, and the word *cuốn* in the sentences about the book, are members of a group of words sometimes called classifiers. Just as the mass nouns in English require a "classifier" when bits of them are being talked about (for example a *piece* of chalk or cake, a *glass* of water, a *cube* or *block* of ice, a *bar* of soap and so on) *so do nearly all the nouns of Vietnamese require classifiers*.

This use of classifiers in Vietnamese, and the fact that they parallel in many respects the behavior of mass nouns in English, results in a tendency on the part of Vietnamese learners of English to assume that all nouns in English are mass nouns. He will say, for example, "Minh ate guppy" when he means "Minh ate a guppy" or "Minh ate guppies", and he might even supply classifiers where they shouldn't be. (And produce sentences on the order of no-tickee-no-laundly sentences like "You want one piece shirt?") (Chinese has classifiers too!)

The Khmer, Lao or Tai Dam Speaker

The kind of contrastive analysis that preceded our remarks on the differences between Vietnamese and English in the previous section is possible only when a fair amount is known about the grammars of the two languages involved. Unfortunately, until very recently there were not enough Cambodians, Black Tai or Laotians among the refugee population to justify the time and expense of research in the languages they speak. Added to this is the fact that the previous research that has been done on these languages is either non-existent, sketchy, or unavailable.

If your students are among the "minority" refugee populations, you will pretty much be forced to rely exclusively on your ESL text to cover all the points of difficulty your students will encounter. You should be flexible here, and allow for extra time on a lesson that is unexpectedly particularly difficult. In the meantime, you can spot problem areas by listening carefully to your students' mistakes.

In teaching pronunciation, you can usually tell when a student has a problem by listening to him repeat after you. If your Cambodian student says buh for bus, for example, try him out on other words that end in s: chances are that he will substitute h for s in them as well, and you can conclude that he will need special help with final s. (There is available a short study of the pronunciation problems of Tai Dam speakers. See General Information Series #10 in Appendix A.)

There will be times when your students will, in mimicking you, produce a sound that doesn't sound "right"; what's probably happening here is that they are substituting from their own language the sound that's closest to the one you are producing. The best you can do here is to get them to experiment with exaggerated pronunciations until they happen to hit on one that sounds good to you. (This is what most trained ESL teachers do anyway. Even if they know precisely which sound the students are making, and how they are making it, it doesn't do the students any good for the ESL teacher to explain, for example, that the student "is producing English initial /t/ without aspiration, and that this sounds like /d/ to Americans, and that he must build up pressure so that when he releases the stop a slight puff of air is expelled...."!)

With structure problems, if you have access to a speaker of your students' language who also speaks English very, very well, you might be better able to understand your students' mistakes by asking him first to translate a particular structure into his native language (be sure you make it clear here that you want the sentence as he ordinarily says it, so that he doesn't translate the sentence word for word from English), then asking him to translate the sentence back into English for you word for word. Chances are that the word-for-word translation will come very close to the errors your students make.

12

SUPPLEMENTARY LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES IN THE REGULAR CLASSROOM

Regular classroom teachers have for the most part not had any experience teaching English as a Second Language to non-English speaking children. This section will hopefully provide some suggestions and ideas for those teachers carrying on the work of the ESL teacher in setting up and/or teaching ESL classes within their regular classroom situation.

In areas where there are not enough non-English speaking children to warrant an ESL program, or even traveling ESL teacher, those non-English speakers that do exist are often referred to auxiliary school personnel for help. The speech therapist, the reading teacher, the DP teacher or the language arts specialist is expected, one way or another, to teach the children English. For understandable reasons, the specialist tends to interpret the problems of the non-English speaker in terms of his own specialty (the reading teacher, for example, might see the non-English speaker's problem as a reading problem, even though the child reads perfectly in his own language, and would transfer those skills immediately if he knew what the words and sentences meant!) Care should be taken on all sides to recognize the child's problem for what it is — the inability to speak English — and to remember that, for the most part, the child in his own language and culture is fully functioning and problem-free. There are, of course, refugee children with learning problems, but these problems are distinct from the overall language problem, and must not be confused with it.

Whoever it is that the child is going to for special help, it will be that person's responsibility to teach him the sentence patterns and pronunciation of English. The classroom teacher's responsibility will be to teach the child vocabulary, and to give him opportunities to use what he has learned in his language classes. The classroom teacher must also see that the child has ample opportunity to learn from his peers. (As we mentioned in a previous section, there are aspects of English that the non-English speaking child can learn only from his classmates: the English used by eight-year-old boys on the playground, for example, simply cannot be taught by the classroom teacher, because she doesn't speak it herself!)

It is imperative that the classroom teacher and language teacher work closely so that together they can form a fairly complete picture of the child and his language needs. If the language teacher and classroom teacher keep each other informed of their activities with the child, they can reinforce each other's lessons. If the classroom teacher, for example, knows that the week's pronunciation lesson is on th, she can focus on vocabulary items with th in them when she is working with the child; or if she knows that the question form "What's this?" and the answer "It's a _____." are being taught, she can review vocabulary by asking the child "What's this?", pointing and requiring the child to answer "It's a _____." Conversely, if the language teacher has a list of vocabulary words the classroom teacher is working on, she can incorporate those words into her pronunciation and structure drills.

As we mentioned before, it is from the classroom teacher that the child will learn vocabulary. It is ultimately more beneficial for the child to be taught vocabulary items orally first, with the written forms taught later, or given as study aids. The child should be shown a cup, for example, and told "This is a cup" or "It's a cup"; he should repeat the word cup several times, both in isolation and in sentences, until he can pronounce it properly. Then he can be shown the written form of the word. (Older children who are literate in their native language will want the written form given to them at the same time as the spoken form, which is fine, as long as the teacher remembers that the spoken form is primary, and focuses on it in her presentation.)

Materials in the Classroom

The teacher will probably want to teach the refugee child classroom vocabulary first: the words for things in the classroom like pencil, book, lunch money, teacher, desk, and so on. When these have been learned, she can use many of the materials which she already has in the classroom as sources of vocabulary. Here are some examples:

1. Picture dictionaries. The teacher can go through these with the child (or have another child work with the refugee student), looking at the pictures and pronouncing the associated words. Later, the child can make his own picture dictionaries, using pictures from magazines or old textbooks.
2. Flash cards and sentence strips with matching pictures. These can be used first in oral work with the teacher or another child; later, the child can work independently with them; matching words or sentences and pictures will reinforce the sentence patterns he has learned, as will copying the words and sentences.
3. Word puzzles and games. These can be used as sources of vocabulary and conversation.
4. DLM (Developmental Learning Materials). Any of the games, pictures, or puzzles designed to increase motor skills, awareness of body parts, or lan-

guage development can be used as sources of vocabulary. Materials for activities (jump rope, etc.) can be utilized in teaching verbs like jump, clap, hop, and skip (and, incidentally, verb tenses: Teacher asks, "What are you doing?"; child answers, "I'm jumping"; teacher asks, "What did you just do?"; child answers, "I just jumped", and so on).

5. Richard Scarry's What Do People Do All Day, Best Word Book Ever, Great Big Schoolhouse, and Best Mother Goose Ever. These are useful because the pictures contain a wealth of material — some of it quite sophisticated.
6. Peabody Language Development Kits. Although these are designed for children with learning problems, they are an excellent source of vocabulary and conversation with non-English speaking children. (The materials designed to help the native speaking slow learner with sequencing, for example, can be used with the bright non-English speaker, who will have no problem with the sequencing, but who needs practice talking in English about what happened first, second, and so on.)
7. "Talking books." Any materials, like Bill Martin Instant Readers, or the Bowmar Early Childhood Reading Series, in which stories are accompanied by tapes or records, can be used by the non-English speaking child, especially the child with a knowledge of the basic sentence patterns, as a source of vocabulary. They have the advantage of providing the child with a good oral model, but at the same time giving him something he can do by himself when the teacher and his classmates are busy with something he can't do yet.
8. Reading labs, programs like SRA or Readers' Digest Skill Builders are good sources of vocabulary (and general information!) for the child with some knowledge of English.

The examples listed above are meant to give the teacher an idea of the materials already in the classroom which can be used to teach vocabulary to refugee children. In fact, anything in the classroom that provides the children with an opportunity to talk about different objects and actions can be a source of vocabulary. If the teacher keeps in mind that the child should be able to say something before he reads it, and if she stays away from materials which teach phonics (for reasons which will be discussed later), anything she can think up will be beneficial.

If there is neither an ESL teacher nor any other language teacher available, the job of teaching English to the refugee child will rest entirely with the classroom teacher. The teacher should find out about the child's language, cultural background, educational experience, and his English proficiency if there is any. She should organize the children (or child) as she would for a reading group, but in this case it will be an ESL group. She will need an ESL textbook (see chapter on ESL materials) and a very detailed and easy-to-follow teachers' guide. A good many of the teachers' guides in ESL books are written for teachers who have had very little or no ESL experience.

Teaching of Reading to Non-English Speaking Children

The classroom teacher might also be called upon to teach reading to the refugee child, especially in the early grades where reading is the prime concern Actually, reading is not that great a problem to the refugee child if he is literate in his language, and his own language has a Roman alphabet. The Vietnamese third-grader, for example, will be able almost immediately to decode English words, because, by and large, the letters of the English alphabet symbolize the same sounds they symbolize in the Vietnamese language; his comprehension of what he has read will go hand in hand with his knowledge of the sentence patterns of English. In other words, basic reading skills transfer readily from language to language. Even children who do not know the Roman alphabet will not have to be taught reading skills, although they will need to be shown the shapes of letters and the sounds they represent.

The kindergartener or first grader who does not yet read will, of course, have to be taught how. In this case, the teacher should rely on readiness activities and building sight-word vocabulary. Until the child has a good understanding of the sound system of English (in other words, until his English pronunciation is quite good) phonics will confuse and frustrate him. English has a different sound system from Vietnamese or Khmer (the language spoken in Cambodia): the child will hear English sounds in terms of his native sound system, and so, for example, will hear they the same as day, and so on. Being told, then, that th sounds different from d will confuse him, because as far as he is concerned they sound exactly the same. Conversely, being told that the word tat has the same sound at both the beginning and the end will confuse him, because to him they are quite different. Until he learns which sounds are the same and which are different to speakers of English, he simply will not understand what the teacher is talking about, no matter how much drill he is given.

The best ways to handle the teaching of reading are the sight-word approach and language-experience method. The sight-word approach builds on the child's basic vocabulary and moves from one-word recognition into complete sentence recognition. From there he usually proceeds to a reading series — basal, programmed or individualized (using library books, textbooks, reference books or magazines). A basal or programmed series will usually provide the teacher with sequenced follow-up activities in development of necessary skills like punctuation, comprehension, and vocabulary. The majority of the texts will be illustrated.

The language-experience method of teaching reading is the most individualized possible, because the child provides the material. Initially it emphasizes listening and speaking; later reading and writing are included.

The child usually dictates a story, or a few sentences, on a topic of particular interest to him. From there the teacher works on vocabulary and the development of basic skills. The older child will be able to write his own stories. Even though he can write, he will need the teacher's help with skill and vocabulary development. The student's vocabulary building can be maintained through the use of "word banks," in which the words recognized and remembered from the stories are written on small index cards and either kept in a file box or a cigar box. After gathering a small number, they can be alphabetized for easy reference.

A few points to remember about reading:

1. The child will want to be in a reading group especially if most of the other children are.
2. If there are only one or two refugee children in a reading group, they should initially be allowed to float between the two best reading groups in the class. These groups will be the best models.

Suggestions for the Classroom Teacher

1. Encourage your students to speak.
2. Avoid material or activites which may be too difficult and therefore frustrating.
3. Speak to your students in a natural way — contractions, normal rate, tone and pitch. Use simple language — short sentences, familiar structures, and concrete vocabulary.
4. Emphasize listening and speaking activities, plays, puppet shows, dramatics, role playing, public speaking, debating.
5. Provide a variety of listening activities: poetry readings, singing, talking books, filmstrip with records and tapes, taped material.
6. Provide the student with talking activities as often as possible: telephone conversations (can usually borrow a system from the phone company), give oral reports on field trips, provide structured situations for talking. For instance, make a map of community and surrounding areas. Have the student work out his route to and from school, and discuss stores, buildings, etc. on the route.

7. Give simple directions — one and two steps initially; even better, use an example.
8. Don't be afraid to correct; make corrections short and immediate.
9. Teach the student to read and write only what he can say and understand.
10. Use a variety of visual aids: chalkboard, charts, pictures, maps, diagrams, movies, filmstrips.

References for General Classroom Materials

Bill Martin Instant Readers
Holt Rinehart & Winston, Inc.
383 Madison Avenue
New York, New York 10017

Cambridge Reading Work-a-Text
Cambridge Book Company, Inc.
488 Madison Avenue
New York, New York 10022

DETECT Series
Science Research Associates, Inc.
259 East Erie Street
Chicago, Illinois 60611

DLM
Developmental Learning Materials
7440 Natchez Avenue
Niles, Illinois 60648

Early Childhood Reading Series
Bowmar Publishing Corporation
P. O. Box 3623
622 Rodier Drive
Glendale, California 91201

First Talking Storybook Box
Scott, Foresman & Company
1900 East Lake Avenue
Glenview, Illinois 60025

The Job Ahead: New Rochester Occupational Reading Series
Science Research Associates, Inc.
259 East Erie Street
Chicago, Illinois 60611

Language Experiences in Reading
Encyclopedia Britannica Education Corp.
425 N. Michigan Avenue
Chicago, Illinois 60611

A Listening-Reading Program
D. C. Heath and Company
125 Spring Street
Lexington, Massachusetts 02173

One to One
Prentice Hall, Inc.
Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632

Peabody Language Kit
American Guidance Service, Inc.
Circle Pines, Minnesota 55014

Reading Incentive Language Program
Bowmar Publishing Corporation
P. O. Box 3623
622 Rodier Drive
Glendale, California 91201

Skill Builders
Readers Digest
Pleasantville, New York 10570

Sounds & Patterns of Language - Talking Our Way to Reading Series
Holt Rinehart & Winston, Inc.
383 Madison Avenue
New York, New York 10017

SRA Reading Labs
Science Research Associates, Inc.
259 East Erie Street
Chicago, Illinois 60611

Transparencies & Duplicating Masters for Language & Vocabulary Development
Milliken Publishing Company
1100 Research Blvd.
St. Louis, Missouri 63132
or
Continental Press
Elizabethtown, Pennsylvania 17022

TRY: Experiences for Young Children
Noble & Noble Publishers, Inc.
1 Dag Hammarskjold Plaza
New York, New York 10017

13

DIFFERING ALPHABETS AND READING PROBLEMS

In this chapter we will touch on the nature of the Vietnamese, Khmer and Laotian writing systems, and the problems, if any, in transferring reading skills from one "alphabet" to another. Before discussing specific writing systems, it might help to briefly consider the nature of writing in general. Language scholars and anthropologists agree that writing is a means of human communication based on a system of conventional marks engraved or drawn on wood, clay, paper, silk or some similar surface. Like speech, writing enables humans to exchange ideas and information, but unlike speech, writing transcends time and space. Virtually any set of marks can be used, provided a significant number of people agree on the meaning and use of the marks. The systems which have been developed throughout human history are basically of four types: those employing pictograms, ideograms, alphabets or syllabaries.

Pictograms are simple representations of recognizable objects. An example of a pictographic system would be one wherein a picture of the sun represented "sun" or "heat" or "light". Sometimes these pictograms evolve into a more complicated stage, wherein the picture assumes a more abstract meaning, like "powerful". One of the primary difficulties with pictograms is that the range of expression is extremely limited, and establishing complicated grammatical relationships is difficult, if not impossible.

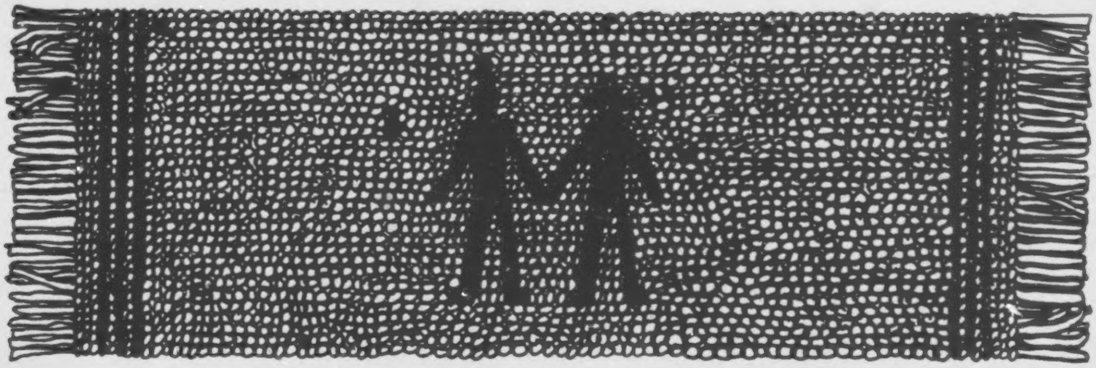


Fig. 1: The Penn Wampum — An example of a pictogram.

Ideograms are often based on pictograms that have become stylized. The ideogram represents a giant step forward in writing because very complicated ideas can be expressed. In Chinese, for example, the ideogram for "sun" when superimposed on the ideogram for "moon" gives a new ideogram, "bright".

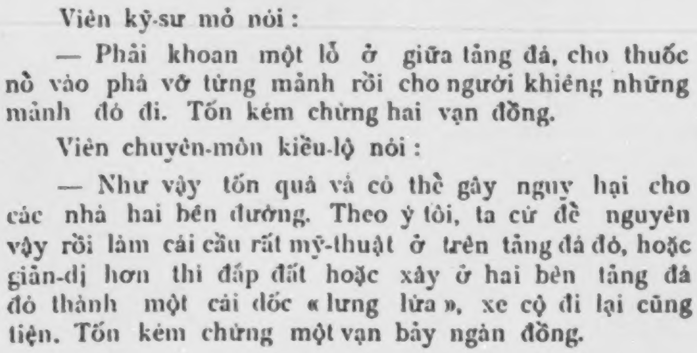
The primary difficulty with a system employing ideograms is the necessity of learning all the possible symbols, or characters. Since there are approximately 47,000 characters in Chinese, for example, learning them all is not an easy task, and often the literacy rate in such a culture is not very high. Further difficulties in terms of mechanical reproduction, either in printing or typesetting, also have to be overcome.

In an alphabet, a given mark represents a particular sound. Thus, a relationship between sound and visual representation is established. One of the advantages of this system is flexibility. There are a limited number of sounds which are used to create words in any language, and the symbols which represent these sounds can be joined in any combination necessary to represent these sounds, or words.

A syllabary differs from an alphabet in that each visual symbol represents a syllable in the language. For example, in Japanese, syllables are always composed of a consonant sound followed by a vowel sound, or a vowel sound alone. A syllabary has been constructed to represent all these consonant-vowel combinations.

Systems Used in Indochina

We might expect the Vietnamese to use Chinese-style ideograms since they were so heavily influenced (culturally) by the Chinese. Interestingly enough, however, Vietnamese is written in the same Roman alphabet that is used in English. Although the Vietnamese learned writing from the Chinese and devised a system in which certain Chinese characters were used to represent Vietnamese sounds (the *chữ nôm* system), the Roman alphabet was adopted in the 16th century after being introduced by French and Portuguese missionaries. This system, called *quốc ngữ*, used the Roman alphabet to represent Vietnamese sounds.



Viên kỹ-sư mỏ nói :

— Phải khoan một lỗ ở giữa tảng đá, cho thuốc nổ vào phá vỡ từng mảnh rồi cho người khiêng những mảnh đó đi. Tốn kém chừng hai vạn đồng.

Viên chuyên-môn kiều-lộ nói :

— Như vậy tốn quá và có thể gây nguy hại cho các nhà hai bên đường. Theo ý tôi, ta cứ để nguyên vậy rồi làm cái cầu rất mỹ-thuật ở trên tảng đá đó, hoặc giản-dị hơn thì đắp đất hoặc xây ở hai bên tảng đá đó thành một cái dốc « lưng lừa », xe cộ đi lại cũng tiện. Tốn kém chừng một vạn bảy ngàn đồng.

Fig. 2: A sample of *quốc ngữ* script.

Quốc ngữ uses various diacritical marks ("accents") placed over or under some letters to indicate particular consonant and vowel sounds and syllabic tones. These diacritical marks are essential for distinguishing words which, while represented by the same letters, may change meaning radically, depending upon tone. For example, the spelling "ma" would not tell a Vietnamese reader whether the word was "a grave", "rice seedling", "cheek", "mom", or "horse". But, with the diacritical marks, the potential confusion is eliminated at once. (Ma = ghost; má = cheek or mom; mà = the pronoun "which" or "that"; mả = a grave; mã = horse; mạ = rice seedling.)

Incidentally, quốc ngữ is an example of romanization. When a language is romanized, its sound system is adopted to the Roman alphabet by selecting the letter which most nearly approximates the sounds made by the speakers of that language. For example, when we see the name "Mao Tse tung" we are reading the romanization of the Chinese characters. Obviously, the accuracy of a romanized transcription of a language will depend upon at least two factors: the ability of the person doing the romanizing to hear subtle distinctions in the language he's transcribing and also his understanding of his own sound system as represented by the different symbols. For instance, we know that among speakers of French, English, Spanish, German, etc., the same alphabet is used to represent approximately the same sounds. However, there are differences. An English speaker seeing the letter x thinks of a sound like the first part of the word X-ray. A French speaker, however, seeing the same letter, thinks of a sound closer to the one represented in English by s as in the word sit. Since the French and the Portuguese did the romanizing of Vietnamese, they chose to represent some Vietnamese sounds with letters which a speaker of English would not have chosen. The initial sounds in the Vietnamese words xinh, xu, and xe are closer to an English s or z: "sin", "soo" and "say".

The Cambodians and Laotians also use alphabets. Their cultural influence came largely from India, rather than China (see section on culture), and consequently their writing systems are a modified form of the alphabet used for Sanskrit, the ancient language of India.

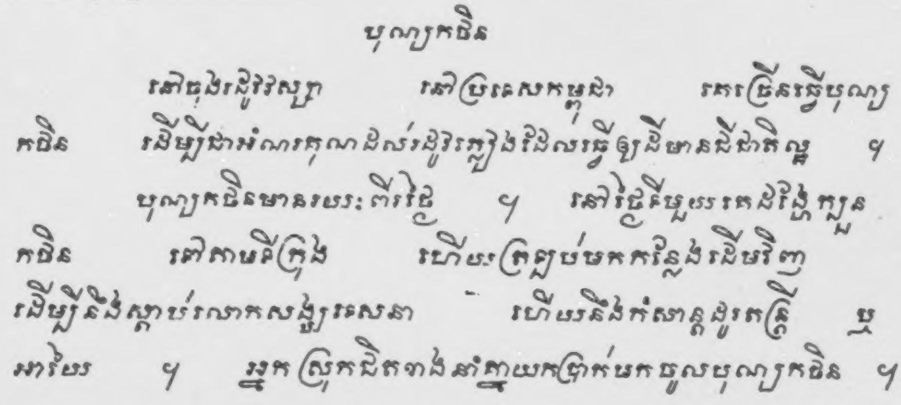


Fig. 3: An example of Cambodian script.

ສາຍພູແດນເໜືອເປັນເຂດແດນທາງດ້ານຕາເວັນອອກ ແລະມີຄວາມສຳຄັນຕໍ່ການປ່ຽນແປງດິນຟ້າ
ອາກາດຂອງປະເທດລາວ. ອາກາດໂດຍທົ່ວໄປໃນປະເທດລາວເປັນອາກາດຮ້ອນ ແລະປີໜຶ່ງແບ່ງອອກ
ເປັນສາມຣະດູ ຄື: ຣະດູຮ້ອນເລີ້ມຕົ້ນແຕ່ເດືອນມີນາຫາເດືອນມິຖຸນາ, ຣະດູຝົນເລີ້ມຕົ້ນແຕ່ເດືອນກໍຣະ
ກະດາເຖິງເດືອນຕຸລາແລະຣະດູຫນາວເລີ້ມຕົ້ນແຕ່ເດືອນພຶສຈິກາເຖິງເດືອນກຸມພາ.
ໃນຣະດູຮ້ອນອາກາດຊຸ່ມແລະຮ້ອນອົບເອົ້າຫລາຍທີ່ສຸດ ຊຶ່ງບາງຄັ້ງຮ້ອນຫມົດເວັນຫມົດຄືນຈົນເຮັດໃຫ້
ຜູ້ຄົນທັງຫລາຍອິດເມື່ອຍອ່ອນເພັຍ ທັງຫມຸງວຕົນໂຕແລະກິນບໍ່ແຊບນອນບໍ່ຫລັບ. ໂດຍສະເພາະແມ່ນອາ

Fig. 4: An example of Laotian script

Reading Problems

Before beginning to teach an Indochinese student to read English, the teacher should find out what the student's previous reading experience has been. Many students are already literate in their native language. Literate Vietnamese students will be thoroughly familiar with the Roman alphabet, since their own language is written using Roman characters. Many Lao and Cambodian students are literate in French, as well as in their own language, and these students will have little difficulty with English script. Some Laotians and Cambodians, however, are not familiar with the Roman alphabet, since Lao and Khmer are languages which use a different writing system. Although they have literacy skills, they will have to be taught the alphabet and writing conventions of English.

But a significant number of Indochinese students enter American classrooms without any reading skills at all. Older students, especially, and illiterate adults not only have to learn to speak English, they also have to develop fundamental literacy skills in order to read English even at the most basic level. Such students present special problems to the language teacher.

Learning to read is a complex task, and it takes time to develop literacy skills, whether the student is a first grader or an illiterate adult. A number of skills have to be mastered. Some are physiological, such as learning to develop coordinated eye movements across a line of print. But the central skill is a cognitive one: learning to associate abstract symbols — such as the letters of the Roman alphabet — with concrete sounds, the sounds of the spoken language, and with the meaning they represent. In order to read any written language, a person must master these basic skills, no matter what the writing system may be.

Once these skills are learned, however, they seem to transfer relatively easily from one language to another, and even from one writing system to another. For example, in order for a literate English speaker to learn to read Greek or

Cambodian, he would have to learn the language, and the conventions of its writing system. (If he were learning to read French, he would only have to learn the language, since it shares the Roman alphabet with English.) This is, of course, a lot to learn. But the English student of Cambodian or Greek would not have to learn how to read all over again. He would simply transfer his literacy capability to another method of writing.

This has several important implications for the language teacher. First, the student who is already literate in a language which uses the Roman alphabet, such as Vietnamese, only needs to be taught certain specific aspects of the English writing system. He will already know many elements of that system. Second, the student who is literate in a language which does not use a Roman alphabet, such as Lao and Khmer, has to be taught all aspects of the system used in English. Finally, an illiterate student would have to be taught basic literacy skills as well as the English writing conventions. It is only for this latter student that literacy materials, such as the "Laubach" materials, would have any relevance whatsoever. However, since the "Laubach" materials are designed for the illiterate student who already knows spoken English very well, they will not be effective for the beginning ESL student. It may be wise to postpone literacy training until the student has gained a strong command of spoken English.

The student's language background and his experience in reading ought to be taken into consideration when planning the reading component for the ESL program.

If the student is literate in Vietnamese.

Literate Vietnamese students have mastered the Roman alphabet. There are, however, some important differences. Vietnamese uses diacritical marks to indicate tones and, in some cases, sound values, and the Vietnamese alphabet differs slightly from the English one. But a more critical difference is this: a Vietnamese student will read the letters of the alphabet using the sound values he has learned for Vietnamese. If you ask a beginning Vietnamese ESL student to read a short English passage (just for the purpose of example, since it is a poor pedagogical technique), it will almost certainly sound incomprehensible. The student will simply convert the passage into a series of Vietnamese sounds. This will demonstrate how important it is to teach, in a systematic way, the English sound values of the English writing system.

The literate student can profit greatly from the beginning by reading short, carefully controlled English passages in the earliest ESL lessons. Reading, while beneficial in its own right, also supports the development of other language skills. But it is very important to make sure that the student learns to recognize and produce the sound values of the English alphabet correctly. The language teacher must control and monitor the student's progress in developing reading skills in English.

If the student is literate in Lao or Khmer.

The teacher has to continue to exercise careful control as these students learn the English sounds of the Roman alphabet. They have the additional problem of being entirely unfamiliar with Roman script, so they will have to be taught all the conventions of the English writing system comprehensively. Many basic ESL texts will contain brief introductions to the printed and the hand-written alphabet. For most students, these brief materials will be sufficient. It is rarely necessary — or desirable — to use literacy materials. In any case, most teachers find that students literate in a non-Roman alphabet have the ability (that is, the basic literacy skills) to learn the Roman system quite rapidly.

If the student is not literate in his native language.

The illiterate student has two problems: 1) to learn English, and 2) to learn to read. These problems should not be confused. It is quite possible to teach conversational English without using written materials at all, and it would be quite wrong to think that the student has to become literate before he can profit from ESL lessons. Moreover, trying to teach the student to become literate in English as he is learning English will have the effect of setting two hurdles before him. Progress is likely to be slow, and the student may be easily discouraged. The problems might best be dealt with separately, as we have suggested. One way is to develop ESL skills first. Another way, widely used when teaching speakers of large language groups in American schools to read, is to teach literacy skills first in the native language. However, this is not a very realistic alternative for Laotian and Cambodian students, since there are no literacy materials in those languages generally available, and few qualified bilingual literacy teachers in this country.

Teachers and language specialists increasingly agree that reading can play an important part in second language learning. Most ESL materials provide for reading, and basic writing exercises, in the earliest lessons. Indochinese students present some special problems for the language teacher. But when the teacher knows the background and reading experience of the Indochinese students, appropriate reading skills can be taught efficiently as an integral element of the whole ESL program.

14

BILINGUAL AIDS: THEIR DUTIES AND TRAINING

When there are large numbers of Vietnamese or Cambodian or Laotian students in a particular school or school district it is then possible to have a bilingual/bicultural education program. By this we are referring to programs in which two languages are used as mediums of instruction. This will allow the children who speak no or a limited amount of English to continue cognitive and linguistic growth in their first language while acquiring English as a second one.

Ideally, a full bilingual program would employ teachers who are totally bilingual and bicultural, and would be responsible for all classroom instruction. A full bilingual program would also be committed to developing relevant instructional materials where needed, providing in-service education, and developing strong community-school-parent cooperation. In discussing bilingual education for the Indochinese refugee population there are obvious limitations: enough trained bilingual/bicultural teachers are not available; materials in Vietnamese are scanty, and materials in Cambodian and Laotian are non-existent. Yet, with the use of a bilingual aide, a support bilingual program can be attempted.

Support programs continue to build upon what the child already knows, and continue the development of his culture and language while he is learning English. Two essential elements of a support program are the employment of some bilingual staff (principally aides) and the acquisition, adaptation or development of materials in the student's native language.

As of September, 1976, at least some text material was available in Vietnamese. (See Appendix H.) With this new material, it is now possible for the qualified bilingual aide to teach at least one course, in the lower grades, in Vietnamese.

One major concern which then arises is the structuring of the classroom and the curriculum. It is possible to structure the environment so that students will be able to associate a language with a learning station, e.g. the student will know that the math or the science "centers" are in his native language, rather than English. It is also possible to structure the environment so that a given language is associated with one particular room. A third alternative is that of structuring the day so that a certain amount of time is allotted to each language. Whatever the administrative structuring, the English-speaking teacher and the Vietnamese-speaking teacher must work as a team to make instruction effective.

Even if native language materials are not available, a bilingual aide in a school can be an invaluable asset. From our experience, the most productive roles for the bilingual aide would be in the following general areas:

1. Tutoring. By this we mean explaining concepts and reinforcing skills in the child's native language when only English language materials are available. This may also include adapting materials, and conducting drill and practice sessions to make sure that a particular concept has been internalized.

2. Being a Communications Bridge. The bilingual aide should be responsible for keeping lines of communication open between the school and the Indochinese students and parents. This would include keeping teachers and administrators advised of cultural and social phenomena and developments which help the school understand the child, as well as explaining to the child what the school expects of him and how he can best meet these expectations.

   Being a communications bridge also involves working with parents. The aide can not only inform parents of school goals and policies, but can gather from the parents personal information about the students and the home environment which may be vital in making judgments at school.

3. Locating and Preparing Instructional Materials. Working with the English-speaking teacher, the bilingual aide can pinpoint the areas in which materials are most needed. If these are not readily available (even in single copies), the aide can create ad-hoc day-by-day materials for class, or adapt an existing English language text for native language use. (See following chapter.) The aide can also serve as part of an instructional team, helping to plan curricula appropriate to Indochinese refugee children.

4. Assessing and Evaluating Students. Through native language testing, the aide can help the school in following a student's progress. The aide, because he shares the language and culture of the student, can also get responses to instructional situations from the Indochinese students where comment would rarely be given to an American teacher.

The four areas of responsibility outlined above are just indicative of the duties of a bilingual/bicultural aide. Obviously, there are more. One responsibility that should not be assigned an aide is that of teaching English as a second language. As will be discussed in Section 3 of this Manual, the teacher of English as a Second Language should be, first and foremost, a good model of the English language. Unless the refugee has fluent command of English pronunciation and grammar (i.e., sounds like a native speaker of English), the ESL program should be staffed by native English speakers, preferably trained in the skills of teaching a second language.

The administrative arrangement for the Indochinese aide will probably be different than for most American aides. The following guidelines will probably help:

- The Indochinese aide, at least in the first few years, will be most effective with Indochinese students. Therefore, in schools where only one or two refugee children are in a given classroom, the aide would be assigned to several teachers or even several campuses. In this case, the aide's schedule needs to be carefully coordinated with teacher and student schedules.
- The aide should schedule a meeting with each student he is responsible for at frequent intervals, at a minimum once or twice a week. It is this personal contact between student and aide which will pay the largest dividends. To make this possible, a place should be provided on each campus for the aide to meet with students, individually and in small groups.
- The schedule should provide for individual teachers to meet with the Indochinese aide to plan curricula and exchange information. Where one aide is serving several teachers or campuses, his schedule, duties, and the line of responsibility and supervision must be both clear and reasonable.
- Some structured observation of the aide's work is probably necessary and should be carefully organized.

In-Service Training

In many instances schools may be fortunate enough to have available a former teacher from Vietnam or Cambodia or Laos who does not have credentials to teach in this country. Such personnel should be extremely valuable in serving as aides.

All Indochinese aides — former teachers and others — will need some in-service education to help them do their jobs better. Such programs would include some or all of the following components:

- A short course in school policies and procedures, especially those involving contacts with students and the community. This can be very sensitive if aides are working with inadequate information.
- Goals and objectives of forthcoming instruction plus the teaching strate-

gies to be utilized. The aide needs to be advised of the "big picture" of instruction in order to carry out his responsibilities.

- Available material and resources he can use in planning his work. This includes awareness of what exists in the library, supplementary materials, audio-visual materials, and community resources. The Indochinese aide will need a variety of sources from which to pull together needed instructional materials, and will be less familiar with school resources than other members of the staff. He will also need to know about available and willing personnel resources he can call upon for help.
- Strategies of interpersonal communication. Since he will be working individually and in small groups and since he has a unique role, his interpersonal skills need to be flexible and effective.
- Strategies of making explanations, conducting drills, evaluating students. Former teachers will likely know these things, but from their own perspective. Others should be taught these skills.
- Techniques of record-keeping. The Vietnamese aide will be gathering information about students which will not be available to others on the staff. This information should be systematically recorded if it is to be useful.
- The relationship between American students, students and teachers, students and parents. Also to be considered are such "tribal rites" unique to American children as pep rallies, social activities, clubs, intense participation in sports, and other peer group activities.
- The nature of culture and details of cultural differences observed among both Indochinese and American children. For instance, a study and discussion of the small booklet entitled A Handbook for Teachers of Vietnamese Students: Hints for Dealing with Cultural Differences in Schools (Center for Applied Linguistics, 1975) could be used in an in-service program for a group of American teachers and Vietnamese aides.
- Basic practices of teaching and learning should be taught or reviewed. Since the aide will be dealing with individuals who practice varying learning styles, some basic information is necessary.

15

PROVIDING BILINGUAL SUPPORT INSTRUCTION AND MATERIALS

As was mentioned in the previous chapter, the primary target of bilingual support instruction is cognitive development and understanding within subject content areas (such as social studies, science, and mathematics) while simultaneously learning English as a second language. To reiterate, the major goals of bilingual support instruction in content areas include cognitive development; social and psychological adjustment; and language learning, both the acquisition of English as a second language, and the maintenance and development of native language skills. In this chapter we will deal with bilingual/bicultural content instruction by both the bilingual aide and the English-speaking teacher.

How to Prepare a Bilingual Lesson

Assuming that an American textbook is to be used, the following tasks can be performed by the American teacher working with the bilingual aide:

1. Identify the key words. Certainly not all words in a lesson are of equal importance. From ten to twenty or twenty-five crucial English vocabulary items should be identified and glossed for each lesson, depending on its length and the grade level. (These words should also be given to the ESL teacher for incorporation into ESL activities.)
2. Summarize the key concepts. If a teachers' manual is provided, it is a good resource for this task. Even if the class presentation involves free discussion (and very complex language use), teachers usually know in advance what conclusions will be elicited.
3. Prepare a few relevant sentences. Use the key words in simple English sentences expressing the key concepts. Writing 'simple sentences' means in general avoiding passives, conditionals, and other complex grammatical structures; it does not require simplifying the concepts.
4. Have the key words and relevant sentences translated into Vietnamese or Khmer or Lao and tape recorded bilingually.
   This is the primary reason every teacher with Indochinese students needs access to a bilingual aide. Both oral and written translations are desireable. Even if a Vietnamese or Khmer or Lao speaking resource person is readily available, the English-speaking teacher should practice pronouncing the native language words and sentences from the tape. The

> teacher's sincere attempt to use the student's native language is important in establishing an attitude of recognition and acceptance of the language for both the refugee and English dominant students. In addition, some productive awareness of the native language sound system will help the American teacher understand the interference which will be occurring between the spoken and written forms of the native language and English for the students.

What follows is a sample adapted lesson using concepts from a social studies unit. For reasons of space we have limited the sample to English and Vietnamese, but the same can be done for Khmer and Lao. (For language arts, see Appendix A, Bilingual Education Series: A Model for Bilingual Language Skill Building.)

		Vietnamese
Concept:	Which place is like where you live?	Chỗ nào giống chỗ em (trò) ở?
	How is it different?	Khác chỗ nào?

Key Words:

picture	tấm hình	cloud	mây
live (v)	ở	country	xứ
house	cái nhà	city	thành phố
home	nhà	sidewalk	lề đường
street	con đường	room	phòng
building	tòa nhà, cao ốc	wood	gỗ
door	cửa cái	brick	gạch
window	cửa sổ	apartment	gian nhà (trong cao ốc)
weather	thời tiết	trees	cây cối
cold	lạnh	grass	cỏ
hot	nóng	different	khác nhau
rain	mưa		

I live in a house/apartment.	Tôi ở trong một cái nhà/một gian nhà.
My house is (not) like this one.	Nhà tôi giống (không giống) cái nhà này.
My house is made of wood/brick.	Nhà tôi làm bằng gỗ/gạch.
The weather is cold today.	Trời hôm nay lạnh.
The weather is hot in Vietnam.	Ở Việt Nam trời nóng.
It is raining. It is not raining.	Trời đang mưa. Trời không mưa.

Summary: People live in different kinds of houses.
Houses are different in different countries.
Houses in the city are different from houses in the country.
Some people live in apartments.

Tóm tắt: Người ta sống trong những loại nhà khác nhau.
Nhà cửa thì khác nhau tùy từng xứ.
Nhà cửa ở thành thị khác với nhà cửa ở thôn quê.
Có nhiều người ở trong những gian nhà trong một cao ốc.

Concept: Where do people live? Người ta ở dâu?
Where could people live? Người ta có thể ở dâu?
Why? Tại sao?

Key words:

trees	cây cối	eat	ăn
ice	nước đá	garden	vườn
fruit	trái cây	plant	cây
fruit trees	cây ăn trái	jungle	rừng
kill	giết	snakes	rắn
animals	thú vật	orchard	vườn cây ăn trái
food	thức ăn		

Which place would you like to live in? Trò (em) thích ở chỗ nào?
I would like to live here. Tôi thích ở đây.
I would not like to live there. Tôi không thích ở đây.
Do you like cold weather? Trò có thích trời lạnh không?
No, I do not like cold weather. Không, tôi không thích trời lạnh.
I like hot weather. Tôi thích trời nóng.

Summary: People live where they can grow food. People live in cities, where other people live. Some people live where it is cold, but it is hard to live there. Some people live in the jungle, but it is hard to live there also.

Người ta sống ở những nơi có thể trồng trọt để có thức ăn. Người ta ở thành thị cùng với nhiều người khác. Có người ở chỗ lạnh, nhưng ở đó khó sống. Có người ở trong rừng, nhưng ở đó cũng khó sống.

Concept:	Why does he dress this way?	Tại sao em (trò) ấy ăn mặc như vậy?
	When do you dress like these children?	Khi nào em (trò) mặc giống như các trẻ này?
	When do you dress this way?	Khi nào em (trò) ăn mặc như vầy?

Key words:

child	đứa trẻ	spring	mùa xuân
children	những đứa trẻ	summer	mùa hè
clothes	quần aó	fall (autumn)	mùa thu
clothing	cách ăn mặc	sun	mặt trời
wear	mặc	snow	tuyết
dress (v)	mặc	white	trắng
change (v)	thay quần áo	sand	cát
store	tiệm	wind	gió
buy	mua	wet	ướt
make	làm	dry	khô
coat	áo măng-tô	raincoat	aó mưa
warm	ấm	rainboots	giày đi mưa
shirt	áo sơ-mi	umbrella	dù
dress	áo đầm, áo phụ nữ	animal	thú vật
shoes	giày	harpoon	súng để bắn cá
boots	giày bốt	hunt	săn bắn
hat	nón	play	chơi
winter	mùa đông	swim	bơi lội
		run	chạy

The weather is ____________ (hot, cold, warm).
Trời ______________ (nóng, lạnh, ấm).

He is ____________ (hot, cold, warm). Em (trò) ____________ (nóng, lạnh, ấm).

The children are running/playing. Các trẻ em đang chạy/chơi.

He is wearing a coat. Em (trò) ấy mặc áo măng tô.

She is wearing boots/a raincoat. Em (trò) ấy mang giày bốt/mặc áo mưa.

I like to play/swim. Tôi thích chơi/bơi lội.

Summary: People dress in different ways. In places where it is cold, people wear heavy clothing. In places where it is hot, they wear light clothing. When it rains, they wear a raincoat and boots to stay dry. People also dress differently in different countries.

Tóm tắt: Người ta ăn mặc nhiều kiểu khác nhau. Ở những chỗ lạnh, người ta mặc quần áo dày. Ở những chỗ nóng, người ta mặc quần áo mỏng. Khi trời mưa, thì mặc áo mưa và mang giày bốt để khỏi ướt. Người ta ăn mặc khác nhau tùy từng xứ.

How to Teach a Bilingual Lesson

1. Use the bilingual vocabulary list in identifying objects in pictures at the primary level, perhaps with bilingual gummed labels affixed in two books or to pictures on charts.
2. Have the refugee student read the key word and relevant sentence lists in both languages with the tape, and then alone.
3. Add questions to the discussion about the pictures which do not require an extensive knowledge of English grammar (e.g., Is this a _____? What is this?).
4. Have students copy sentences in either language and illustrate their 'story'. (Such an activity as this is typical of the many common teaching procedures which can easily be adjusted to include bilingual instruction.)
5. Use the relevant sentences with other lexical items as 'substitution drills', e.g.: The weather is (hot, cold, warm); Trời (nóng, lạnh, ấm).
6. When assigning silent reading, put the material on tape (either English or a native language translation).
7. Put some of the class discussion questions in a more controlled grammatical framework (e.g., 'Do you know from what materials those things are made?' might be rephrased 'Cars are made of _____; Refrigerators are made of _____', etc.).
8. Make use of the exact wording of the key concepts which have been translated when summarizing a lesson with the entire class.

9. When study or review questions are included in a lesson, have them translated into the native language along with answers for self-checking. Use a bilingual format so the students can follow class discussion of the questions and answers in English.

Individualizing Content Instruction in English: General Suggestions

The following suggestions are included for English-speaking teachers who do not have access to a bilingual aide or an older bilingual refugee student. Both the teacher and student will have to have access to a tape recorder, but content instruction can and should go on in the regular classroom.

1. Use several modes for presenting information, including both oral and written language and appropriate visual aids.
2. Keep the grammar and vocabulary consistent in such expressions as 2 plus 2 equals 4 (not 2 and 2 are 4, or 2 added to 2 is 4) and make maximal use of nonverbal symbols.
3. Prepare activities which are either programmed for self-correction or accompanied by a cassette recording (e.g., sentences to be completed with a key word after hearing or reading a brief passage).
4. Prepare cassette recordings and/or written summaries of concepts presented in a lesson using controlled English vocabulary and structures.
5. Tape record written material from the lessons so students can associate fluent English pronunciation and inflection with written symbols. Space may be left on the tapes so students can practice reading aloud after the model.
6. Record tapes to be used in conjunction with individualized workpapers. The easiest levels would have students identify the word or sentence they hear by marking it on the paper. More difficult assignments would include having students complete partial outlines of the recorded content.
7. Record sentences with a noise (click or beep) in place of a key word in each. Some missing words should require hearing the context which follows before identifying and writing them.
8. Record tapes to accompany extensive reading material. Students should be able to check out the tapes with books from the class collection or the library.
9. Let students see, as well as hear, new vocabulary when it is introduced

in subject areas. If students are to see a film or hear a lecture, distribute an advance list to limited-English speakers of words they should know, preferably in the order they will be heard. Review the pronunciation and meaning of important new words with students individually, providing translations when the meaning is not clear.

10. Have each student maintain a notebook or card file of words which are new to him, and which he thinks he may want to use in the future. The entry form that is generally easiest and clearest for second language learners consists of one or more examples of the word in context plus a simpler paraphrase in English, or a translation into his native language (if he can read and write it).

4: CULTURAL CONSIDERATIONS

16

A BRIEF GLIMPSE AT VIETNAMESE HISTORY

As a people which shares a common origin, a common language and a common cultural heritage, the Vietnamese — who now number roughly 41 million — are an old people with a prodigious recorded history of over two thousand years. To this they usually add a semi-legendary period that goes back over two thousand years more into the past.

Seen in their broadest outline, the two milleniums of recorded Vietnamese history are marked by one thousand years of Chinese rule (second century B.C. to tenth century A.D.), followed by nine hundred years of independence and territorial expansion (tenth century to 19th century), and, in the most recent period, a century of deep involvement with the West, mainly France, and very briefly the United States.

It is a long and turbulent history of an indomitable people who, in the course of the centuries, have managed to fashion a strong sense of national identity and independence. Historians say that this trait in the Vietnamese has helped them avoid what, for a lesser people, could very well have been the inevitable, namely, their complete assimilation by their northern neighbor, China. This strong sense of independence has also been identified as the hidden force behind the extraordinary determination with which, in the last three decades, the Vietnamese — North and South — have resisted the intentional as well as unintentional encroachments upon their sovereignty by foreign powers.

This section of the Manual for Indochinese Refugee Education 1976-1977 offers a brief glimpse into this history. Its purpose is to provide those Americans who are now engaged in the education of Vietnamese refugee children with a short set of information on the historical background of the Vietnamese people. Essentially it is designed to answer the question which many American teachers all over the country have been heard to ask when the Vietnamese refugee children walked into their classrooms for the first time: what national history do these children bring with them?

The Last Two Hundred Years: 1776-1976

In 1776, when the American people declared their independence from Britain, Vietnam had been an independent country for over 800 years. The Vietnamese had ended their thousand-year-long domination by the Chinese eight centuries earlier with a final and decisive military victory at the great battle of Bach Dang in 938 A.D.

The country had also successfully completed its difficult but relentless expansion southward against the Chams, a strong Indianized kingdom in the central portion of the peninsula. It then shifted its attention further south to the land of the Khmers. By 1776, in a see-saw geopolitical contest with Siam, the Khmers' neighbor, the Vietnamese, had already taken large areas of land. The Vietnamese were now in the midst of a new phase of territorial expansion which would, by the end of the 18th century, extend their borders to the limits of present day Vietnam. These limits now enclose a surface area of 127,000 square miles (roughly that of New Mexico) with a coastline of 1,200 miles (roughly the length of the U.S. Pacific coast) looking out on the South China Sea.

As the last quarter of the 18th century began, Vietnam was a country divided into two parts along roughly the same demarcation line as that of the recent Vietnam war, i.e. the 17th parallel of latitude. The North was being ruled by the Trịnh Lords, and the South by the Nguyễn Lords. The two sides had been living in this uneasy peace for 100 years following an inconclusive civil war that had lasted for over 50 years before the long-lasting truce was declared in 1673.

This peace was shattered in 1773 when three brothers from the Tay Son village in central Vietnam launched an uprising against the Nguyễn Lords. With strong popular support they defeated the Nguyễn by 1778 and went North to defeat the Trinh in 1786. The country was reunited and ruled by one of the brothers who proclaimed himself Emperor Quang Trung in 1788. At the same time, in America, the newly written U.S. Constitution had just been ratified by New Hampshire, the ninth state, and thus had just become the law of the land.

The rule of the Tây Sơn brothers was brief. It came to an end in 1802 when Nguyễn Ánh — a descendant of the Southern Nguyễn Lords — defeated them after 25 years of determined struggle. In 1802, i.e. two years into the Jeffersonian presidency in the U.S., Nguyễn Ánh proclaimed himself Emperor Gia Long and thus founded the Nguyễn dynasty which was to rule Vietnam for the next 143 years, until 1945.

The Nguyễn dynasty was marked from the beginning by its involvement with France, an involvement which eventually led to France's conquest of the entire territory of Vietnam. Nguyễn Ánh owed his life to the French missionary Pierre-Joseph-Georges Pigneau when, in 1777, as a 15-year old Nguyễn prince being hunted by the Tây Sơn brothers, he was saved from capture by the French priest who was doing missionary work in southern Vietnam at the time. Pigneau was to play an instrumental role in the prince's defeat of the Tây Sơn. In 1788, he brought him assistance in the form of several hundred French volunteer-advisors recruited in Pondicherry, a French possession in India. This small group of Frenchmen, who helped in the training of the prince's army and navy, was credited with an important part in Nguyễn Ánh's eventual victory.

As Emperor Gia Long, Nguyễn Ánh ruled Vietnam from 1802 until his death in 1820. Although suspicious of Western influence, he was — perhaps out of gratitude for the French help he had received — better disposed towards the French missionaries in the country than his successors would later prove to be.

In the 1830's and 40's, as the pioneers in the U.S., under Presidents Jackson and Van Buren, were slowly pushing westward across the Great Plains to the Far West, in Vietnam, the Vietnamese emperors began the persecution of the Christians. This hostility, which had been in evidence off and on in Vietnam for a long time (in fact, ever since the early European missionaries arrived in the Taoist-Confucianist-Buddhist country in the 16th century), was renewed by Emperor Minh Mạng in 1834 and was continued with increased vigor by Emperor Thiệu Trị in the 1840's. Christian missionaries were arrested, tortured and jailed, and several prominent ones like the French Msgr. Lafevre obtained release only when French warships appeared off the Vietnamese coast.

Matters came to a head during the reign of Tự Đức, a pious and learned Confucian who ascended to the throne in 1848. Tự Đức issued edicts to disperse the Vietnamese Christians, ordered their villages destroyed and their lands redistributed with the Christians themselves branded on the left cheek with the words tà đạo, "infidel". Thousands died. In 1857 Tự Đức put to death Msgr. Diaz, the Bishop in charge of missionary work in northern Vietnam. This gave France under the Third Empire just the pretext it needed for its colonizing ambition. After some French demands were rejected by the Vietnamese court, the French bombarded and landed in Đà Nẵng in 1858. Thus, as the American people were going through a period of political and social turmoil over the question of slavery — in a prelude to the 1861-1865 American Civil War — the Vietnamese, in their own country, were beginning to hear the guns of conquest. France's conquest of Vietnam lasted for 25 years and did not end until the whole country came under French control in 1884.

The Vietnamese had fought foreign aggressors many times before. But throughout their turbulent history, these had always been people not very unlike themselves: people whose looks, whose thinking, and more importantly, whose strategy and armaments they were not unfamiliar with. This was the first time they had to grapple with the technologically superior Europeans. The result was disastrous. Vietnamese bravery and the Vietnamese genius for improvisation which had carried the day for them in many of their historic fights against the Chinese, the Mongols, the Chams and the Khmers now proved to be no match for the French guns. In 1859

Saigon was captured. By 1867 the whole Southern portion of Vietnam, called Cochinchina, was taken.

The French then turned their attention to the northern part of the country. Here they had to deal not only with the Vietnamese and the Chinese pirates who were hampering their navigation up the Red River, but also with China itself which was becoming concerned over the presence of a belligerent French force across its southern border. Nevertheless in 1882 Hanoi was seized. In 1883 the French attacked the forts protecting the approaches to the Vietnamese imperial capital of Hue, inflicting frightful losses on the defenders. In 1883 and 1884 two successive treaties were signed by Emperor Hiệp Hòa recognizing, at last, a French protectorate over the central portion (Annam) and the northern portion (Tonkin) of the country.

And so, as the U.S. under Chester Arthur — successor to President Garfield — was plunging headlong into industrialization, with the production of the gasoline automobile only one year away, the Vietnamese now came under foreign rule. The year 1884 marked for the Vietnamese the loss of an independence that had lasted for 945 years, since 939 A.D. The name "Việt-Nam" itself was officially abolished.

To consolidate their rule, the French created in 1887 — two years into President Cleveland's administration in the U.S. — an Indochinese Union consisting of Tonkin, Annam, Cochinchina and Cambodia, itself a French protectorate since 1863. In 1893 Laos was added. Thus the term "French Indochina" came into being and thus, France's "mission civilisatrice" in the land of the already culturally sophisticated Vietnamese came into full swing. The traditional Vietnamese social order was allowed to be preserved only in a nominal form, through the maintenance in Annam of the Nguyễn dynasty which was now continued by puppet kings installed on the power-depleted throne by the French governors.

Seen with the benefit of hindsight, this 'civilizing mission', apart from its economic exploitation of the Vietnamese, sought to create in Vietnam a society patterned after the French one, and at the same time demanded from the Vietnamese uncritical submission to colonial rule. The result was what the French rulers themselves did not anticipate: disruption of the long-established stabilizing forces of the Vietnamese traditional order, and creation of deep tensions and stresses in the Vietnamese social fabric. Historical experts on Vietnam feel that it was these tensions and stresses that, well before World War I, paved the way for the political awakening of the Vietnamese. This awakening, in turn, was to rekindle their strong sense of national identity and independence and led to the resurgence of Vietnamese nationalism.

This nationalism took the form of conspiracies, secret organizations with clandestine revolutionary activities, and sometimes open mutinies and rebellions. Started around 1905 and gathering momentum only very slowly, the movement met with particularly severe French repression. In 1908, for example, due to nationalistic assertiveness among the students, the newly-opened University of Hanoi — the only university in the country for nearly the whole period of French rule in Vietnam — was closed for almost a decade. In the late 1920's several revolutionary groups were formed; notable among them were a nationalist group with Chinese Kuomintang support and a communist group led by the able Nguyễn Ái Quốc — later known as Hồ Chí Minh — with his Chinese, French and Soviet contacts.

These Vietnamese underground revolutionaries were mercilessly persecuted by the French and — when they were in exile in China — suspected by the British. In the 1940's, through dedication as well as firm and intelligent leadership, Hồ Chí Minh and his communist-controlled Việt Minh — an abbreviation for "League for the Independence of Vietnam" — were at the forefront of the nationalist movement. Thus French suppression of Vietnamese nationalistic aspirations helped to cause the nationalist movement to fall under communist leadership. A British historian familiar with this period has remarked that the Vietnamese "with their deep attachment to property and their strong patriarchal family system, are not natural recruits to communism."

The Second World War helped to loosen further the French grip on Vietnam. In March 1945, the Japanese who had let the Vichy French continue to administer Vietnam at their sufferance, took over the control of Indochina from the French. Bảo Đại, the 13th emperor of the Nguyễn dynasty, declared Vietnam an independent country under Japanese 'protection'. Hồ Chí Minh, with several of the Tonkin provinces under his control and with an active communist-manipulated nationalist movement in the South, refused to recognize the emperor's power. He seized Hanoi and his cadres assumed power in Saigon soon after the Japanese surrender in August, 1945.

Carrying out the terms of the Potsdam Conference, Nationalist Chinese troops came to Vietnam to take over from the Japanese north of the 16th parallel, and the British arrived in the southern half of the country for the same purpose. After dismantling the Japanese force, the British withdrew from the south in 1946, leaving the Vietnamese situation to the eagerly returning French. In the north, the Chinese, too, were persuaded to withdraw after the French made some concessions on their extra-territorial rights in China and on the status of the overseas Chinese in Indochina. Thus in 1946 the French were back in Vietnam, this time to face the full force of Vietnamese nationalism which was being manipulated by the Communists.

In August 1945, won over by skillful communist propaganda which presented the Việt Minh as a strong nationalist movement, Emperor Bảo Đại abdicated his throne and handed over his imperial seal — and with it, legitimacy of leadership — to Hồ Chí Minh. The Nguyễn dynasty thus came to an end and rule of monarchy in Vietnam, which had lasted for almost exactly one thousand years, vanished.

In September 1946, Vietnam's independence was proclaimed again, this time by Hồ Chí Minh, and with this, the Democratic Republic of Vietnam came into existence. Three months later, after negotiations with the French had broken down, the Vietnamese — fueled by nationalistic fervor, but now firmly controlled by the communists — began to attack the French troops in Tonkin. The first Indochina War (1946-1954) was started.

And so, once again, the Vietnamese confronted the Europeans at war. But this second time, unlike the first in 1858, after nearly a century of close association with Westerners, the Vietnamese had learned much. The booming of modern guns, which they now also possessed, no longer inspired fear in their hearts as it formerly had. Their characteristic bravery and their genius at improvisation, which was seen in full display at the battle of Điện Biên Phủ in May 1954, for example, again came in to help carry the day. After eight years, 35,000 killed and 48,000 wounded on the French side and reportedly a quarter of a million casualties on the Vietnamese side, the war came to an end in 1954 with the signing of the Geneva Agreements.

Under the terms of the Agreements, the northern half of the country from the 17th parallel was placed under the control of Hồ Chí Minh's Democratic Republic of Vietnam, a now openly communist regime which had long before rid itself of the participation of the non-communist nationalists. "North Vietnam" was born.

South of the parallel, history was a little more involved. In 1949, when Hồ Chí Minh's troops and cadres were already waging an active guerrilla war against the French throughout Vietnam, using the jungle and the countryside as their base, Emperor Bảo Đại was persuaded by the non-communist nationalists to return from exile to head "the State of Vietnam" as Chief of State. Thus, the Geneva Agreements placed the part of the country below the 17th parallel under the control of the government of the State of Vietnam. Shortly before the Agreements were signed, Bảo Đại appointed Ngô Đình Diệm prime minister. An able former mandarin commanding wide respect, Ngô Đình Diệm solidified his government and, with Vietnam now divided in two, called a national referendum for the South to decide between him and Bảo Đại as Chief of State. He won overwhelmingly and, in October 1955, proclaimed the South to be the Republic of Vietnam. Thus "South Vietnam" was born.

As in the 17th century when the North and the South had fought each other for

50 years, the country was now locked in a North-South struggle. This conflict, as we all know, ended with the defeat of the non-communist South when the South Vietnamese capital of Saigon fell to the communists in April, 1975.

Vietnam thus regained the independence, sovereignty, and territorial integrity it had lost to the French 91 years earlier, in 1884. Ironically, however, this great achievement was the work of the communists. With this fact in mind, a Vietnamese non-communist nationalist recently remarked that "Việt-Nam has regained its independence, but the people may have lost their individual freedom."

Nine Centuries of Independence and Territorial Expansion

We started this chapter looking at the last 200 years of Vietnamese history. But, unlike U.S. history, the Vietnamese people have had a long and full history for many centuries before that. As the 10th century began, the Vietnamese were living under Chinese rule. This rule, which had begun a thousand years before in 111 B.C., was about to be put to an end. With the collapse of the T'ang dynasty in China in 907, the Vietnamese — as they had done several times before whenever they saw a power crisis in China — began to make a new bid for independence. This struggle culminated in 938 in the historic battle of Bạch Đằng, where the Vietnamese leader Ngô Quyền inflicted a decisive and final defeat on the Chinese occupation forces. With this victory, the first independent Vietnam became a historical reality, and Ngô Quyền became the founder of the Ngô dynasty, the first national dynasty of Vietnam (939-968). At this time, the size of the country was less than half that of present-day Vietnam, comprising only Tonkin and the three northern provinces of Annam. To the South, the Indianized kingdom of Champa held sway.

The Ngô dynasty was unable to control the powerful local chieftains whose rivalry created great turmoil in the kingdom. In 968, Đinh Bộ Lĩnh — the most powerful chieftain in a group of at least a dozen — prevailed over all the others and established the Đinh dynasty (968-979). The next dynasty, called the Earlier Le, was similarly short (979-1009). Its king raided and sacked the Chams' capital of Indrapura and thus resumed the long-standing conflict with Champa which had begun at least two centuries earlier and which was to continue on and off for seven centuries more. This long-lasting expansionist drive of the Vietnamese was to end in the total annexation of Champa and the virtual destruction of the Chams' highly advanced civilization in the 17th century.

The Đinh and Earlier Lê dynasties were important periods of development in religion. Taosim was favored and classical texts of Mahayana Buddhism were imported from China. Official efforts were made to introduce Buddhism to the people who, with a characteristic eclectic bent, began to graft it to their indigenous animistic practices.

The Lý dynasty, which began in 1009, was the first of the great Vietnamese dynasties. It lasted for 216 years and was ruled by nine kings. It ushered in a long period of prosperity, cultural development, population growth and territorial expansion, and — adapting from the Confucian model of the Chinese — gave Vietnam the mandarinal system of public administration. In the mid-eleventh century, the first imperial examinations were held. These were examinations of literary criticism and composition based on knowledge of the Chinese Classics. They were styled after the Confucian examinations in China and were administered by the court for the recruitment of administrative officials in the upper echelons. The administration of the country was carried on by a civil bureaucracy headed by mandarins, i.e. the successful candidates to these examinations in whose hands resided both executive and judicial powers. This mandarinal system of administration, first adopted during this dynasty, was to be retained by the Vietnamese until the French conquest. Its most noteworthy cultural influence perhaps was the early creation in Vietnam of an aristocracy based not on a royal blood line but rather on merit. During the Lý dynasty, Buddhism reached its height; it was made a state religion. Taoism and Confucianism flourished; and religious painting, as well as the art of ceramics, was brought to perfection. In 1069, Emperor Lý Thánh Tôn, one of Vietnam's greatest emperors, invaded Champa, raided its capital, captured its king, and forced him to cede his three northern provinces to the Vietnamese. Thus the Vietnamese expansionist policy of 'nam tiền' or 'southward march' received an impetus that was blunted only by the arrival of the French in the 19th century.

In 1225 the Lý dynasty was succeeded by the Trần which held power for 175 years. The Trần dynasty, another period of cultural growth, laid great emphasis on scholarship and produced a 30-volume history of Vietnam, the first extant historical records of the country. This emphasis on learning gave a strong boost to Confucianism which now began to replace Buddhism in importance. But the most significant feature of the Trần dynasty was, in the eyes of most Vietnamese, its great military confrontations with the Mongols. In 1257 a Mongol army sacked Hanoi but was driven out by the Vietnamese. In 1281, the great Kublai Khan, who became emperor in 1260, again sent a large army south, under Marshal Sogatu, to take Champa. The Vietnamese, whose territory was invaded in the process, put up such stiff resistance that the Mongols had to retreat. Kublai Khan's son Togan made another attempt to enter Vietnam in 1285 but was also beaten back. The Mongols, who had been successful in imposing their rule wherever they went, finally abandoned their attempt in Vietnam when the Vietnamese emperor Trần Nhơn Tôn dealt them a crushing defeat in Hanoi in 1287.

The Trần dynasty was also marked by a series of fierce see-saw battles with Champa which started in 1312 and ended in 1398 with the net result of Vietnamese territory being expanded as far south as Danang. The Vietnamese's aggressive designs were further made apparent when they moved their capital southwards from Hanoi to Thanh Hóa in order to better pursue their war against the Chams. But their plan came to a sudden halt when it was unexpectedly held up by another important development.

In 1400, Hồ Quí Ly, an ambitious regent, usurped the throne. He deposed the young 13th emperor of the Trần and took power. This gave the Ming emperor Yung-Lo in China the occasion to intervene, ostensibly on behalf of the Trần. In 1406, the Chinese invaded Vietnam and within a year the country fell under Chinese rule. Although the new Chinese domination lasted only 22 years, i.e. until 1428, the record of their harsh treatment of the Vietnamese was one of the most ignoble in Vietnamese history. Their brutal pillage of the country as well as their blatant efforts to sinicize the Vietnamese in their language, their mode of dress and even their hairdos, brought about a strong movement of national resistance under a Thanh Hóa guerrilla leader named Le Loi. After ten years of warfare, using hit-and-run tactics which later Hồ Chi Minh was again to use successfully against the French, Lê Lợi managed to pen up the Chinese occupation force in Hanoi and, when a relief column from China was destroyed, the Chinese capitulated. Thus in 1428 the brief Chinese interregnum came to an end and the Second Lê dynasty was established.

Lê Lợi ruled Vietnam as Emperor Lê Thái Tổ, founding a dynasty that lasted for 360 years. It boasted a succession of 37 rulers, the most celebrated of whom was Emperor Lê Thánh Tôn, the 8th Le emperor, who ruled from 1460 to 1497. During his reign, Vietnam grew more powerful than it had ever been; and as a result, the slowly-diminishing kingdom of Champa was dealt the death-blow in 1471 when Lê Thánh Tôn took advantage of a Cham civil war to occupy most of its territory and transformed the thus conquered territory into a part of his dominions. This process of absorption continued to be exerted on the remaining independent districts of Champa until the kingdom disappeared completely as a political entity in the 17th century. All that remains now of this once-advanced culture is a miniscule rural ethnic minority and impressive ruins from a glorious past which French anthropologists and archeologists have brought to the attention of the world. (It is interesting to note that many Vietnamese who believe in the Buddhist doctrine of Karma, and in retribution for evil acts, feel that the ruthless extermination of the Cham civilization by their forebearers was perhaps the evil act for which the retribution was the long agony of the recent Vietnam war.) After Lê Thánh Tôn's death in 1497, his successors were weaklings, and in the next three decades — between 1497 and 1527 — there were no less than ten kings ascending to the throne, four of them usurpers. Their ineptitude made the court a center of complex intrigues, much like what was to be seen again in the 1960's in Saigon after the assassination of President Ngô Đình Diệm.

Thus, in 1527 an ambitious mandarin, Mạc Đăng Dung, forced the reigning emperor to commit suicide, usurped the throne, and founded the Mạc dynasty. Vietnamese history now entered a very involved period. In 1533, a powerful family, the Nguyễn, headed by Nguyễn Kim, pushed the Mac out of the southern part of the country and set up a descendant of the deposed Le dynasty as ruler in the south, thus restoring the Le to nominal power. However, a struggle for power developed in the Nguyễn's ranks. Trịnh Kiểm, a son-in-law of Nguyễn Kim, became the leader of one faction, while Nguyễn Hoàng, Nguyễn Kim's son, became the leader of another faction, with both professing to fight the Mạc for the restoration of the Lê dynasty. Thus in 1570, Vietnam was under three separate authorities: Tonkin was under Mạc control with Hanoi as the capital; south of the capital, in the three provinces of Thanh Hóa, Nghệ An and Hà Tĩnh, the Trịnh ruled; and the area further south, with Quảng Trị as the Center, was under the Nguyễn. In 1592 the Trịnh seized Hanoi, took control over most of Tonkin, and drove the Mạc to the northern border region adjacent to China. The Trịnh now became the lords of the North. The stage was thus set for a bitter struggle between the Trịnh and the Nguyễn. The uneasy relationship between the two sides in the next two decades came to an end when, over a matter of tax revenues due the Hanoi court, civil war broke out in 1620. As referred to earlier, this Vietnamese civil war lasted for 50 years and was followed by a North-South division of the country that lasted for 100 years, until the Tây Sơn uprising in 1773.

The Semi-Legendary Period and a Millennium of Chinese Domination

As with most peoples with an ancient past, the Vietnamese, themselves an old people, claim a legendary beginning which — they now tell their school children — dates as far back as 2879 B.C. This was when their forebears, immortals all, founded the Hồng Bàng dynasty which, they say, endured for over 2,600 years until 258 B.C. "Con Rồng, cháu tiên" or "children of dragons, grandchildren of immortals" was a phrase frequently used by teachers in elementary school history classes in Vietnam. Sober historians, of course, have another version.

Although the origin of the Vietnamese has been much debated, it is thought to be the result of intermarriage between the local Mon-Khmer and Malayo-Indonesian tribes already settled in Tonkin before the 4th century B.C. and a mongoloid people whose migration may have reached Indochina via the valley of the Yangtse and what is now the area of the Chinese provinces of Chekiang, Fukrin, Kwang-tong, and Kwang-si. The earliest accounts — written by the Chinese, whose cultural influence spread to the area throughout the period from the 9th to the 4th centuries B.C. — mentioned the existence of a kingdom named Yuch ('Viet' in Vietnamese) south of the Yangtse River around 500 B.C. In 333 B.C. this people, one of many tribes living in southern China at the time, was driven out of their land and was forced to move further south. In the second half of the 3rd century B.C. the Chinese emperor Shi Huang Ti of the Ch'in dynasty conquered the Kwang-tong and Kwang-si provinces whose population at the time was still non-Chinese. Tonkin and northern Annam still remained outside the Chinese empire. In 208 B.C., as the fall of the Ch'in dynasty was imminent, the Chinese General Chao T'o, on his own initiative, united the two Kwangs with Tonkin and northern Annam to form an independent kingdom under his rule, called Nan Yuch ('Nam Việt' in Vietnamese, or "Southern Việt"). The Canton dynasty, thus established, confined its rule to the two Kwang provinces in the north while leaving the more distant Tonkin and northern Annam under native administration. This action may have marked the first step in the direction of autonomy and independence which was later to evolve into a Vietnamese identity distinct from the Chinese.

Nan Yuch was recognized as an independent kingdom by the Han dynasty. But in 111 B.C. Emperor Wu-Ti, the founder of Chinese imperialism in Asia, annexed the kingdom, and thus the semi-autonomous Tonkin and northern Annam fell under Chinese rule.

Vietnamese historians, viewing the semi-autonomy of Tonkin and northern Annam as the start of Vietnamese nationhood, now see 111 B.C. as the date at which their people became subjugated for the first time to Chinese domination. For Western historians this date of the annexation of Nam Viet by the Chinese Han dynasty marks the end of the legendary period of Vietnamese history: one millennium of Chinese rule.

When the Hán army took Nam Việt, the Vietnamese were a feudal society with villages ruled by hereditary chieftains in vassalage to provincial lords who, in turn, owed allegiance to the king. Their agriculture was still primitive and was of the slash-and-burn variety. Sophisticated irrigation, the plow, and the water buffalo were unknown; the stone hoe was the principal tool of cultivation. Their system of belief was animistic, and their language was probably of the Mon-Khmer group with strong T'ai affinities. In short, it was in this type of society that Chinese culture began to exert its influence.

The Vietnamese, who, as mentioned earlier, had started down the road of independence and had begun to feel a sense of national identity distinct from the purely Chinese, missed no chance at reasserting this independence. In 39 A.D. two sisters, Trưng Trắc and Trưng Nhị, led an armed revolt, threw out the Chinese and ruled the country for four years as joint reigning queens of an independent country. They were defeated by the returning Chinese forces and committed suicide by drowning themselves, thus becoming for the Vietnamese throughout their history a symbol of Vietnamese indomitability in the face of foreign oppression. Between 541 and 602 the Vietnamese made three more major attempts to regain their independence; but each time the liberation from Chinese domination was short-lived and was invariably followed by stricter and more direct rule from the Chinese. This rule, which brought into the occupied country such major sources of cultural influence as the Chinese classics, the Confucian system of ethics and Mahayana Buddhism, gave the subjugated people a taste of the great Chinese civilization which the eclectic Vietnamese were to spend a millennium busily modifying and adapting to their own needs.

It was not until the fall of the Chinese T'ang dynasty in 907 that the Vietnamese had the chance for another attempt against Chinese rule. In 939 the Vietnamese leader Ngô Quyền defeated the Chinese occupation force at Bạch Đằng and started the Vietnamese on a nine-hundred-year period of independence and territorial expansion that was discussed earlier.

In summary, the Vietnamese probably started out as a non-Chinese people who gradually became Mongoloid through intermarriage. After a hesitant start as a semi-autonomous people, they came under direct Chinese rule early in their history, in 111 B.C. This rule ended in 939 A.D., and the country remained independent for over nine centuries, until the French took control of it in 1884. This French rule ended in 1954, but total independence and territorial integrity were not obtained until 1975, when the communists defeated the non-communists in a North-South conflict. Vietnamese culture now reflects a strong Chinese influence which came to them through the millennium of Chinese rule and through active borrowing and adaptation in the course of the nine hundred years of independence. Superimposed on this solid bedrock of nearly two millenniums of adapted Chinese culture, there is a veneer of Western culture brought by one hundred years of involvement with the French, making the Vietnamese and their country a fascinating amalgam of East and West.

17

A BRIEF LOOK AT THE HISTORIES AND CULTURES OF LAOS AND CAMBODIA

For the last twenty years, Americans have been influenced politically, economically, spiritually and morally by the countries of Southern Asia. The term — Southeast Asia — has come to represent a handful of countries with cultures vastly different from our own. Often, we have failed to understand significant differences among these various countries; differences which have taken on a new dimension for agencies and individuals dealing with the re-adjustment problems of Indochinese refugees now living in the U.S.

This part of the Handbook will attempt to briefly indicate a little of the history, the religious and social values of the peoples of Cambodia and Laos. No attempt has been made to discuss the underlying questions of any of these subjects, or to give as full a treatment as we have to the subject of Vietnam and the Vietnamese. Rather, certain trends have been identified which may account for differences between Lao and Cambodian refugees and the rest of the world, based on the unique historic experiences of these people.

History: Laos

Throughout history, China has exerted a powerful influence on her smaller neighbors. While this influence was direct and strong in Tibet and Vietnam, it was actually rather minimal and tangential in Laos and Cambodia. The strong cultural (as opposed to military) influence in these countries was exerted by India. The mountains which separate Vietnam from Cambodia also marked the demarcation between what can be called the Chinese sphere of cultural influence from the Indian.

Our first historic knowledge of the Lao people comes from the Chinese chronicles of the 6th century B.C. They refer to a group of "barbarians" living beyond the Yangtze River, in what are now Yunnan and Sinkiang provinces. By the 8th century A.D., these "barbarians" had created a military kingdom called Nan Chao in Western Yunnan, which thrived until 1253 A.D., when it was destroyed by Kublai Khan. This destruction intensified the southerly migrations of Lao, Siamese, Mon and Meo tribes along the Mekong, Salween and Irrawaddy Rivers. The Lao gradually displaced the Kha ("slaves"), the indigenous people living in these river valleys, who were vassals of the Khmer overlords of the region.

In 1353 A.D., the kingdom of Lan Xang ("lǎng zǎng") was founded. This political event marks the beginning of a Laotian people living in, and controlling, their present geographic location. An important cultural event occurred in 1547 when the Emerald Buddha, a green jasper carving, was brought to Lan Xang. This Buddha became an important symbol of royal prerogative and of the importance of Buddhism as the state religion.

In 1571, Lan Xang was conquered by Burma, from whose rule she was liberated twenty years later by Siam, to whom she then became a vassal. In 1694, upon the death of King Souligna Vongsa, a power vacuum was created which was resolved by the division of the kingdom into three separate autonomous kingdoms: Vientiane, Luang Prabang and Champassak. Throughout the 18th and 19th centuries, internecine warfare continued until the French penetration of Indochina was felt. In 1864, France had annexed Cochin China, a region of Vietnam, and by 1885, the French government had a representative in Luang Prabang. In 1896, the frontier between Burma and Laos was established by means of a treaty between the French and the British, an agreement which carved up Indochina between the two Western powers, and France was firmly entrenched in the area, remaining unchallenged until 1941.

When the Japanese invaded the region in 1941, they allowed the Vichy French officials to continue administering the Indochinese possessions. In 1945, the Japanese authorized nationalist leaders to declare their independence from France and to join the Greater East Asian Co-Prosperity Sphere, and on August 17, Prince Petsarath declared Laos independent of France. However, immediately after V-J Day, the French moved to re-take their Southeast Asian territories.

When the French returned to Laos, a government-in-exile was established in Bangkok by Petsarath, with Prince Souvanna Phouma, a neutralist, and Prince Souphanouvong, a Hồ Chí Minh-influenced leftist, as dissenting members. This government was disbanded in 1949, when Laos joined the French Union as an autonomous member. Only Souphanouvong did not return to Laos, preferring to organize the Pathet Lao. In October 1953, the country gained complete independence.

Laos' recent political history is a story of coalition governments falling to military coups and resisting Pathet Lao attacks throughout the country. Nominally neutralist, the government of Souvanna Phouma came under increasing pressure, from Vietnam, from the United States, from the Pathet Lao and from internal forces. In 1973 the government was replaced by the present government and the Lao People's Democratic Republic was created.

History: Cambodia

On the whole, Cambodian history is much like that of Laos: a history filled with political and military struggles, followed by a decline which continued into the 19th century, when France moved in and took over the country.

During the 1st to 3rd centuries A.D., three distinct groups inhabited the lower Mekong River region: the Funanese, the Chams and the Khmers. Eventually, the Funanese came to dominate the region which they called Fu Nan.

During the 6th century, Chen La, a former vassal state of Fu Nan, gained ascendancy over its former master, subsequently annexing Fu Nan. From 535 to 802 A.D., Chen La extended its influence to the Chinese border, fell under Malayan rule and then re-asserted its independence. A series of civil wars during the 8th century reinforced the split between those people living in the North (the Land Chen La) and those living in the maritime region (the Water Chen La). This maritime region would later become the nucleus of the Khmer empire.

The period from 802 until 1432 is called the Kambuja or Angkor Period. This was Cambodia's Golden Age and is still invoked by politicians trying to rally the people. The city of Angkor Wat, with its magnificent pagodas, was constructed at this time and is a national symbol of the glory of the old empire. In 802, Jayavarman II reunited the old Chen La empire and extended royal patronage to the arts, architecture and learning.

After the death of Jayavarman VII, in 1215, the empire began a process of decline. The Thai, or Siamese, reacting to Mongol pressure, began to infiltrate the area and by the end of the 13th century, independent Siamese states had come into existence within the Khmer territory. Wars with Thailand were waged on a non-stop basis for centuries, and in 1430-1431, the Thai captured Angkor Wat. Although the Khmer recaptured it, it was abandoned as the national capital.

The period from 1432 until 1864 can best be seen as one of preservation, rather than invention or expansion. In the arts, the dance and other art forms preserved the culture, but did not develop it. Similarly, in politics, energy was expended in preservation of the state in the face of continuous attacks from Thailand and Annam. In an attempt to ward off Thai advances, Cambodia sought assistance from Spain and Portugal. However, in 1603, Thailand was able to set a vassal king on the Cambodian throne. Annam continued to encroach on Cambodian territory, until by 1800, Annam controlled the South and Thailand the North of the country.

Ang Duong, the founder of the present Cambodian dynasty, came to the throne in 1846 through Thai-Annamese cooperation. Subject to dual vassalage, he called in a third party, France, to aid him. Ang Duong was succeeded in 1859 by his son Norodom, a Thai protegé. He ceded two western provinces to Thailand, and Cambodia became a French protectorate in 1864. Two months later, Norodom was crowned by representatives of the Thai and French governments.

The Franco-Cambodian treaty of 1863 gave France control of Cambodia's foreign affairs. After a popular uprising in 1884, France governed Cambodia through a parallel administration. The king became largely symbolic, while the French résident supérieur ruled the country.

After 1887, Cambodia joined the Indochinese Union, an economic and political cooperative organized by France. Cambodia became a peaceful and prosperous country, totally controlled by France. In 1941, Norodom Sihanouk became king.

As in Laos, Japan allowed France to continue administering Cambodia throughout World War II. However, following the Japanese authorization of independence on March 9, 1945, King Sihanouk did indeed declare independence (on March 12), accepting the Japanese-backed Son-Ngoc-Thanh as his prime minister.

In September, 1945, France attempted to regain her lost Indochinese territories. Cambodia became a member of the French Union as an "autonomous kingdom". Sihanouk began to apply pressure on France, demanding his country's complete independence, at the same time that France was prosecuting the war in Vietnam. A series of treaties was negotiated which, in February, 1954, led to the complete independence of Cambodia, under the rule of King Sihanouk.

Religion

Buddhism is the dominant religion of Laos. Introduced in the 14th century A.D., Buddhism became the official religion and the predominant school of belief. However, as the political fortunes of the Laotian kingdom declined, so did the fortunes of Buddhism as the state religion.

Before the arrival of Buddhism, there existed a strongly animistic cult marked by the worship of spirits who lived in nature and in man himself. These phi, or spirits, which could be good or evil, held sway over man and all of his actions. Today these two religions, Buddhism and the phi cults, exist in mutual tolerance.

Buddhism is not a religion in the western sense of the word. Rather, it is a moral system, an ethical structure. Perhaps a brief introduction to some of the basic tenets of Buddhism will make more clear certain basic cultural traits of the Laotians and Cambodians. Buddhism is based on three principles: 1) dharma: the doctrine of the life of Buddha, and this life as a guide to right action and belief; 2) karma: the retribution of actions; the responsibility of a man for the sum of his actions in prior incarnations; 3) sangha: the religious community, the ascetic order in which one can improve the sum of his actions. There is no promise of heaven or of life after death. There is, however, the possibility of release from the cycle of birth and death. This release is called nirvana.

The essence of Buddhism is contained in the Four Noble Truths: 1) Life is suffering; 2) suffering is caused by desire; 3) suffering can be extinguished by eliminating desire; 4) to eliminate desire, follow the eight-fold Path: a) right understanding; b) right purpose; c) right speech; d) right conduct; e) right vocation; f) right effort; g) right thinking and h) right meditation. This Path is the basis for the monastic life led by the Bonzes (the priests or monks). Insofar as possible, Buddhism asks all of its adherents to follow this path, because it is the only way to attain _nirvana_. Often, a young man becomes a bonze, temporarily, for a period of three months, just before he marries. This bonzehood is both merit-making and highly prestigious for the young man's family.

The life of a bonze is governed by 227 specific regulations stemming from five basic behavioral precepts. These are prohibitions against taking life, against stealing, against lying, against drinking fermented beverages and against incontinence. Additionally, prohibitions against possession of gold, personal adornment, manual labor and against looking at women exist. Although bonzes are not productive in any material sense, neither are they idle. In addition to prayers and begging, they also teach, study, maintain the pagoda and offer spiritual counseling. For many years, non-vocational education was largely the affair of the bonze.

The ascetic life necessary in order to attain _nirvana_ is extremely strict. Obviously, most people would be unable to follow it. Therefore, Mahayana Buddhism, which offers _nirvana_ to more people, developed and is followed in Vietnam, China and Japan. However, the people of Cambodia and Laos continue to follow the stricter Hinayana, or Theravada, Buddhism.

Although Buddhism is not a religion, _per se_, but rather a moral system of living, important holidays and ceremonies are observed. These are a mixture of Buddhist doctrine and rituals aimed at propitiating or exorcising the _phi_. Important holy days are the Lunar New Year; Vixakha Bouxa, which celebrates the birth, enlightenment and death of Buddha; the beginning and end of the lenten fasting period; the Feast of the Dead; Ho Khao Slak, when the bonzes are given offerings; and the Festival of Waters. Although some of these derive their significance from Buddhist scriptures, their celebration is often _phi_-oriented.

In Cambodia, as in Laos, Theravada Buddhism is the dominant religion. While 90% of the population are Buddhists, the second most important religion is Roman Catholicism. (In Laos, by contrast, conversion to Christianity was largely unsuccessful.)

Other important religions include Mahayana Buddhism, especially among the Chinese, and Islam, the religion of the Cham-Malay population.

The religious customs, beliefs and values described for the Laotians are equally true for the Cambodians. One of the important differences, however, is in the existence of two "sects" (corresponding roughly to different monastic orders in the Catholic Church). One of these sects is more fundamental in its orientation than the other, but the daily life of most people is not affected by the doctrinal debates of the two groups.

The religious life of Cambodia is given an added dimension by Brahmanism, with its associated Indian philosophy and deities. Although it has lost its ideological base, this religion is still important in royal ceremonials, with its emphasis on the king as a member of the pantheon. Some of the Hindu gods still are popular with Cambodians, co-existing with Buddhism, whose tolerance for other religions has often been noted. Indra, the ruler of the universe, is seen as a beneficent patron of the fortunate. Yama is the god who judges the dead, despite the Theravada belief that there is no afterlife. There is also, as in Laos, a fairly extensive belief in spirits who share the world with men, called neak ta.

Ethnic Groups and Languages

The population of Laos is an ethnic mixture of many groups. The dominant group has traditionally been the Lao, and their leadership, although accepted by other ethnic minorities, has always reflected the ideals and aspirations of the Lao elite. The Lao speak a language, Laotian, which belongs to the Sino-Tibetan family.

Other languages have, of course, influenced Laotian. Pali, the religious language of Theravada Buddhism, is an ancient Indic language in which the Theravada scriptures are written. Bonzes say their prayers in this language, in a way analagous to the former use of Latin by Roman Catholic priests in the Western World. As a result many Pali words have found their way into the Laotian spoken by the people.

Additionally, many Lao speak or are familiar with French and/or English. During the colonial period, the language of government, commerce and secular education was French. Many educated Lao speak French fluently, and even among the less well-educated certain French words used to express concepts introduced during the colonial period have been retained. English has had a somewhat less profound influence on Laotian, although many technical terms introduced by Americans have been retained in Laotian.

Cambodia presents a somewhat different ethnic picture. Khmer peoples account for 85% of the population, with about 5% Vietnamese and 5% Chinese. Although these groups are small, they have posed significant economic and political problems for an otherwise homogeneous population. During the colonial period, especially, the Chinese controlled the Cambodian economy and the Vietnamese, brought in by the French, ran the government bureaucracy. The Cambodians deeply resented "foreign" control of these two important systems.

While Khmer is the language of normal social intercourse, Vietnamese is widely spoken, particularly in commerce, household marketing, etc. While French is spoken in the upper reaches of society, and among the intelligentsia, it is officially viewed as a symbol of cultural imperialism and therefore is out of vogue, although many Cambodians are familiar with it.

Relationships, Status and Organization in Villages

The household is the basic economic unit of Laos. All productive property and family labor are combined for collective use and mutual gain. No one farms a plot of land for himself alone, to the exclusion of others. Although the family is publicly represented by its male head, the woman has considerable influence concerning family finances, plans, etc. The Lao prefer nuclear families but the extended family is not uncommon.

Labor is divided on an age/sex basis, with old people and children seen as productive assets, not liabilities, since they release the mother for other necessary tasks.

The house site is very important because the family, as a unit, continues to exist as long as the site exists. Fields may be rented, but not the house site. The youngest daughter normally inherits the house site, and is responsible for her parents in their old age. In principle, children, regardless of sex, share equally any inheritance, apart from the home site. In reality, sons are probably somewhat favored in the case of agricultural land, but primogeniture does not exist.

Although family bonds are strong, the family name is not particularly important. Traditionally, Lao names are descriptive, referring to things from everyday life — trees, colors, flowers, etc. In 1943, the government, by decree, instituted mandatory adoption of family names. The Lao, however, continue the practice of changing names at will. Names are often changed to incorporate status, honors, titles, to confuse evil spirits, or to indicate a new stage of the individual's life cycle. This is somewhat analagous to the Western custom of adopting new names among religious, or of women who change their family names at marriage to their husband's name.

While the household is the basic economic unit, the village is the primary political unit in Laos. The village is generally comprised of several families related by blood and/or marriage. Status is given on the basis of the individual's demonstrated moral and personal character, and this, rather than inheritance, determines his (or his nuclear family's) status within the village. However, status is attached to certain functions. We have already seen that the bonze enjoys function-based status. Every village that can afford to supports a pagoda and the abbot enjoys great status. Also important are the village head and the government school teacher. In some villages, the shaman, a person sensitive to the spirit world, also plays an important role because of his ability to mediate with the phi-world, propitiating spirits and interceding on behalf of the villagers.

Although the village is largely independent, it is linked to the larger national society through religious and political hierarchies and through an elaborate system of trade conducted among villages, both to procure raw materials and to trade finished products or agricultural produce.

In Cambodia, as in Laos, the nuclear family is more desireable than an extended family. This is especially true, of course, in urban areas, although among the rural population, economic demands may force the existence of the extended family, even though it is not the preferred pattern.

The Cambodian kinship system is bilateral, unlike that of Vietnam or China. Relations among kin, inheritance, marriage ties are all regulated without paternal or maternal bias. However, as in many Asian countries, a girl's life is planned with an eye toward social and financial advantage. While a boy may bring honor to the family either by being a good farmer and community member, or by consecrating himself to religion, a girl can only advance the family fortunes through an advantageous marriage.

More clearly than in Laotian society, the twin hierarchies of religion and government merge in the person of the king. A fairly sophisticated system of nobility is the center of urban life, but has little effect in the countryside. Since most people in any given village are related, and since there are relatively few large landowners, status depends upon "good reputation", usually earned through religious acts. Religion pervades Cambodian life in a way that is difficult for us to imagine. It is not only the key to future happiness, through improved karma, but also is an element, if not the chief element of present happiness.

Other Considerations

Education has played a major role in the urbanization process. In Laos, superimposed on the traditional religious and vocational schooling a young Lao receives from the bonze and the craftsmen of his village is the compulsory public education in schools closely modeled on the secular schools introduced by the French. The Laotian public school system had a spectacular growth and, although seriously handicapped by insufficient funds and a shortage of qualified teachers, was providing education only possible for the wealthy a generation ago.

This largely Western-oriented education has produced, at least initially, some conflict within the Lao, given differences between a traditional view of knowledge and the world and the "modern" view of Western technological society. But the Lao have for centuries absorbed the impact of foreign cultural influences and the immigration into the country of foreign nationals. Lao culture today shows a mixture of Hindu, Buddhist, Thai, Vietnamese, Khmer, French, and, more recently, American influences. Still, the Laotian of today possesses a viable culture, marked by a characteristic tolerance and gentleness, a lack of interest in personal aggrandizement and a fondness for the simple pleasures of life. Balancing these traits is a hardheaded practicality in the face of threats to individual or group identity.

Much the same kind of observation can be made for the situation in Cambodia. In Cambodia, perhaps, the role of the monarchy has been stronger than in Laos. From earliest history, when the power of the king was absolute, the monrachy has been the unifying symbol of Cambodian culture, of the relation of the Khmer people to their land and religion. The monarchy continued to play a central role in preserving the nation and the people's sense of nationhood, through a century of colonial rule, through two world wars, independence and the recent cold war. The majority of Cambodians regarded their independence as the result of the efforts of one man: the former King Norodom Sihanouk.

In Cambodia, as in Laos, the society was vertically linked by Buddhism which drew its members from all segments of the Khmer population and imparted to all of these members, whether peasant or monk, ruler or ruled, a common system of values which emphasized individual improvement within the context of the existing social order, rather than a change in that order itself.

18

A CROSS-CULTURAL GLIMPSE OF THE VIETNAMESE PEOPLE

In a previous chapter we briefly looked at over two millennia of Vietnamese history. In this chapter we will attempt a task equally as complex, if not more so: a brief statement of "what makes the Vietnamese tick". We will try to capture fundamental aspects of Vietnamese "culture", or the Vietnamese "value system" in our attempt to answer the question, "What are the Vietnamese like?" Needless to say, such a question is impossible to fully answer. But we hope that through our careful selection and close examination of many frequently-made observations and remarks about the Vietnamese, by both non-Vietnamese and Vietnamese themselves, we can at least approach an answer.

On the subject of getting to know an individual, the Vietnamese have an interesting saying:

Đi lâu mới biết đường dài,
Ở lâu mới biết con người phải chăng.

Just as the length of a road is known only by actually traveling on it,
The qualities of a man are known only by living with him for a long time.

It is useful to keep in mind this little point of wisdom from the Vietnamese when, as Americans, we seek to understand them by our various means. Our intentions may always be sincere, but our means — like this short chapter — cannot be but inadequate by the Vietnamese yardstick of the above-mentioned popular saying.

Vietnamese Through the Eyes of Vietnamese

Following are English translations of excerpts from the book Người Việt, Đất Việt (Vietnamese People, Vietnamese Land) by Cửu-Long-Giang and Toan-Ánh; 528 pages; Nam Chi Tùng Thủ Publishers; Saigon, 1967:

"....Vietnamese are an intelligent people. They possess a keen sense of observation which gives them the ability to grasp things quickly; it also gives them a tendency to imitate others. Short on a sense of innovation, they tend to hang on to old and established ways. They are skillful with their hands and love to outsmart each other in small petty matters, an inclination which often leads to craftiness. They have a mocking sense of humor which can sometimes degenerate into disparagement.

"Vietnamese have a high regard for morality and uphold the five Confucian virtues of humanity, righteousness, propriety, wisdom, and faithfulness as guides for their daily conduct. They love book-study and have avid minds.

"Ordinarily giving an appearance of being shy and afraid, they value peace and harmony in all relations. However, when they are faced with danger, or are on the battlefield, they display great bravery and know how to maintain discipline, giving death itself as much weight as an airborne thistledown. Often motivated by compassion for others, they have a strong sense of gratitude.

"Vietnamese also have several serious flaws in their character. They are a shallow people who are also boastful. They lack patience and attach great importance to surface appearance. They yearn for status, fame and fortune, love fun and the gay life, and like to gamble for money. They believe in ghosts and spirits, and worship gods and deities. They are arrogant and love to brag.

"...A most admirable trait in the Vietnamese, however, is the love they have for their country. It is this strong attachment to their native land that has helped them, several times in the course of their history, to liberate their country from domination by their northern neighbor, China; in the last hundred years, it has enabled them to keep up a relentless struggle against French colonialists...."

This rare description of the Vietnamese character by two Vietnamese cultural historians, interesting as it might be, gives us a quick glimpse of what Vietnamese are like. The brief description will have to be elaborated on and complemented by other sources before a balanced and useful picture can emerge.

A Trait Called 'tánh cần cù'

When asked to comment on the major characteristics of their people, many Vietnamese often mention 'tánh cần cù'. From the sometimes lengthy descriptions given for it, its closest English equivalent seems to be 'industriousness'. But Vietnamese say that 'tấnh cần cù' is more than being industrious, pointing out that Americans are also an industrious people but are not regarded as having this trait. It seems to be a combination of thrift, industriousness, patience, determination and endurance that allows a Vietnamese farmer to plough his field all day under the hot sun, walking slowly behind his water-buffalo, ankle-deep in the mud of the rice paddy. It is also, they insist — recalling the recent Vietnam war — the trait that allowed a whole army to be supplied bit by bit, ant-like, by provisions carried on the backs of men and women who had to travel on foot hundreds of miles over perilous jungle trails. Seen through American eyes, 'tánh cần cù' is perhaps the quiet willingness to do things the hard way when the hard way is the only way possible.

There are indications from America's experience in Vietnam, as well as from direct observations of the refugees' behavior in the U.S., that there is validity in this self-image on the part of the Vietnamese. And leaders of refugee groups, as well as Vietnamese intellectuals writing in various refugee publications in the U.S., are unanimous in seeing in this quality the source of strength and resiliency that will eventually allow the refugees to pull themselves up slowly but surely by their own bootstraps.

Love of Learning

'Tánh hiếu học', which literally translates as 'love of learning' is another trait which is frequently mentioned as a characteristic of the Vietnamese people. Another image which the Vietnamese have of themselves, 'tánh hiếu học' needs to be examined more closely, if for no other reason than the fact that no people of any culture ever describes itself as harboring a hatred of learning.

What the Vietnamese mean by 'love of learning' should not conjure up the picture of a small nation where there are great libraries and where the literacy rate is one hundred per cent. Nor should it bring to mind the image of great scholars and scientists devoting their entire lives to the pursuit of knowledge and the investigation of things, even though 'investigation of things', or 'cách vật', is one of the eight main precepts in the Confucian classic 'Đại Học', or Great Learning, one of the several Chinese classics that have exerted a profound influence on Vietnamese cultural life.

The love of learning which the Vietnamese talk about is actually a traditional, deep, and almost subconscious respect for the learned and their learning. Until the early 1900's, this respect for learning was embodied in the traditional scholar with his long tunic, long finger nails and scraggly beard, sitting on an ornate straw mat with his Chinese classics and his calligraphic writings beside him.

Perhaps the Vietnamese attitude toward learning is best exemplified by the documented story of the illiterate old farm woman who took a sheet of rice paper away from her grandson and reverently burned it because it had calligraphic writing on it, rather than let the little boy desecrate it by making it into a kite for his own entertainment.

Western observers — French and American — see this Vietnamese 'love of learning' as a strong veneration of book-study, much more than a dynamic Faustian drive "to strive, to seek, and never to yield" in the pursuit of knowledge, which is more commonly associated with the peoples of the Western world. American educators familiar with education programs in Vietnam have often observed that the Vietnamese child's style of learning tends to be of the passive variety rather than the active. The child has been reported to rely more on listening, watching and imitating than on experimenting, trying things out, and generally discovering things for himself by himself. Perhaps this is what the cultural historians Cửu-Long-Giang and Toan-Ánh meant, too, when they remarked that the Vietnamese had a "tendency to imitate others", and that they were "short on the sense of innovation".

Vietnamese love to point out, as evidence of their deep respect of learning, the fact that high-level administrators of the country used to be sought exclusively among talented scholars who were chosen for their high public offices through grueling competitive examinations styled after the Confucian examinations in China and administered directly by the imperial court. Many American officials with service in Vietnam have noted that even though the imperial examinations themselves were abolished in the early 1900's after the opening of the country to Western influence, the preference for scholars to serve in high positions is still strong in modern-day Vietnam.

There are positive as well as negative aspects to this deep respect for learning. The high value placed on learning tends to make the Vietnamese student a hard-working one, and the high regard for the learned tends to make him place his teacher on a higher level of respect than his American counterpart would. But when learning is equated with book study and is devoid of any serious concern for practical experience — which seems to be the observation of most non-Vietnamese familiar with Vietnamese culture — the consequences can be serious. These observers have pointed out that it is not unusual to find young Ph.D.'s schooled in the West, with not a single day of administrative experience, appointed to run vast and complex government agencies. So it is well to remember that this "love of learning" on the part of the Vietnamese can range from an enlightened and healthy respect for scholarship to a blind veneration of the learned and everything connected with book-learning, an attitude more commonly found among the less-educated masses.

If this cultural trait is preserved by the refugees in their new life in America — and several thoughtful observers have recently expressed doubt that it will not be affected in some degree by the cultural transplanting undergone by the refugees — it is reasonable to expect a very positive attitude on the part of the refugee parents regarding the education of their children. And, as has been reportedly the case of the Chinese-Americans, a good proportion of the Vietnamese refugee children can be expected, in time, to find their way into American universities and colleges, propelled there by, among other things, this special 'love of learning' which their parents brought with them to America as part of their cultural baggage.

Heart Versus Mind

American difficulties in Vietnam during the period of American involvement there have been seen by specialists in cross-cultural communication as being the result of a pernicious conflict between a 'heart-oriented culture', the Vietnamese, and a 'mind-oriented culture', the American. Even though we have to take into account the special blinders put on these experts by their professional discipline which tend to make them see things in the light of cross-cultural differences alone, their opinion is well worth a closer examination.

If 'heart' is understood to be feelings, sentiments and emotions which motivate people's behavior independently of the dictate of reason or rationality — what the Vietnamese themselves refer to as 'tình' or 'tình cảm' — then it is safe to say that the Vietnamese are, indeed, a heart-oriented people. There seems to be a distinctive predilection among the Vietnamese for literature and music that are deeply sentimental and sad. "Kim-vân-kiều", the long poem which is the recognized centerpiece of Vietnamese literature and which is said by experts on Vietnamese literature to portray the very soul of the Vietnamese people, is, in fact, the story of a beautiful young woman, buffeted by the vissicitudes of life, lamenting her hapless fate. Tough Vietnamese rangers, fresh out of battle, were reportedly seen sitting rapt and moist-eyed through ballads of unrequited loves and untimely bereavements sung by pretty singers in Saigon cabarets. And the Vietnamese classical musical form of 'Vọng Cổ', greatly appreciated by the masses, is described by Vietnamese musicologists to have a hauntingly sad quality that "seems to mirror a deeply sentimental mood in the depth of the Vietnamese soul". While most Americans tend to shy away from sentimentalism, the Vietnamese seem to be drawn to it and absorbed in it. Feeling sorry for oneself, indulging in self-pity, moping in one form or another — something most Americans are inclined to resist — is frequently given in to by the Vietnamese. 'Tủi phận' or 'lamenting one's fate' is the term they have for it.

But the term 'heart-oriented culture' means more than the superficial appearance of sensitive emotionalism or subtle sentimentalism that the Vietnamese are prone to. On a philosophical level, it means a characteristic and pervading humanism which permeates and gives distinctiveness to the whole culture. Throughout their cultural history there seems to be among the Vietnamese more preoccupation with man than with nature. There is more interest in how men feel, react and transact with one another than how nature functions or how things in the physical environment operate. Thinking is directed towards morals and ethics and the formulation of rules of conduct for man, rather than towards the physical environment and the discovery of laws and principles that govern the operation of nature. It's 'Western' science, but it's 'Oriental' wisdom, in the Vietnamese lexicon. Taoism, a philosophical system which seeks to define a place for man in relation to the universe, and Confucianism, which suggests an avenue to sagehood and an ethical code of conduct for man in relation to his society, both found ready acceptance among the Vietnamese when these intensely humanistic philosophies spread south to Vietnam from China early in Vietnamese cultural history.

It is perhaps indicative of this deep-seated orientation toward man that Vietnamese have singled out the three humanistic philosophies of Taoism, Confucianism and Buddhism, grouped them together, and called them 'Tam Giáo', 'The Three Teachings'. And Vietnamese intellectuals are often heard proudly describing their culture as 'nhân bản', or 'rooted in man'.

On the level of social organization, this 'heart-based' culture also translates into a society which is basically run by men, with their individual idiosyncrasies, their strengths and weaknesses, rather than by a fair but impersonal system of laws that is actively adhered to and absolutely enforced, although, of course, a Vietnamese code of laws exists. A Vietnamese refugee in Virginia was recently observed deliberately running a red light as he was slowly driving home from work late one night. When asked by his American friend riding with him why he did not stop, he replied: "The street is deserted." Practical considerations and social conditioning of public behavior aside, the American felt that there were philosophical implications in that act, because "My concept of law is such that, even on a deserted street, I would instinctly have stopped, even if only for a few seconds," he said. While it is dangerous to make too much of this common incident, it might explain to some extent why many non-Vietnamese observers have described the Vietnamese concept of authority as being 'personalized' rather than 'depersonalized' or institutionalized. Authority is more readily recognized when it has a human face, and the law is understood better when it is represented by a man. And, as was frequently observed by foreign diplomats in Vietnam, allegiance, political or otherwise, is usually to a man much more than to an abstract principle or ideal. The do-it-yourself concept of income tax computation and payment in the U.S., which involves no tax collector carrying a collection bag, is an example of depersonalized, faceless law that a person-oriented Vietnamese refugee might find easy to understand but difficult to handle in the proper way.

But nowhere is the high value the Vietnamese place on 'heart' or feelings and sentiments more obvious than in the interpersonal relations of their everyday life. The former chancellor of Huế University, discussing the problem of assistance to Vietnamese refugees in the U.S. at a symposium on immigration held in San Francisco last year, stated that, for himself as well as for all other Vietnamese refugees, what was given was not as important as how it was given and "the feelings" behind it.

With such a value orientation still very strong in them, there is no doubt that the Vietnamese refugees will have a lot to adjust to if and when they become, through resettlement failures, the objects of faceless institutionalized good will, or the wards of impersonal computerized charity, which this nation, out of necessity, has to practice.

Sensitive observers of the Vietnamese character, like Douglas R. Beane of the Church World Service, felt that this preoccupation with 'heart' to the detriment of 'mind' as represented by reason and logic, is probably the most important factor to remember when one seeks to understand Vietnamese behavior patterns. It helps explain the greater complexity and intensity found in Vietnamese interpersonal relationships, the depth and durability of Vietnamese friendships, and the resiliency of the Vietnamese extended family which has withstood the onslaughts of both modernization and war. A Vietnamese psychologist, speaking as an informant on this subject, felt that, even though this strong value orientation in the Vietnamese toward 'heart', human warmth and the personal was yet to be put to the real test in Vietnam, i.e. the test of rapid modernization and industrialization, it is now being tested daily deep within each and every refugee living in the complex technological web of American society. And only half-jokingly, he said so long as the refugees continued to find ways to celebrate Têt, to commemorate the death anniversaries of their ancestors, and generally to attend to "the affairs of the heart", chances were good that they would not succumb to loss of identity nor to alienation, which is part of life in a technology-oriented society.

Propriety in Interpersonal Relations

It is often pointed out that, compared to Americans, Vietnamese seem to be much more formal in their interpersonal relations. They appear to be more protocol-minded and to place a higher value on decorum, etiquette and ceremony, considerations which Americans tend to dismiss as not so important. An American engineer, sponsoring a Vietnamese refugee family in his home in Maryland, reported that the term 'sir' was used by the group to address him so many times that he nearly went out of his mind. "They've got no business being so formal with me." he said.

This formality in interpersonal relations, which is often insufferable to egalitarian-minded Americans, is actually very deeply rooted in the Vietnamese. Experts in Vietnamese culture see it as an aspect of the Confucian concept of 'lễ' or 'propriety', one of the "five constant virtues" that Confucianists since the 5th century B.C. have believed should "guide the thoughts, deeds and words of the superior man". The Vietnamese word for politeness, 'lễ phép', literally means 'rules of propriety'.

For the Vietnamese in their various everyday encounters, 'propriety' means the almost subconscious and reflex-like application of tacit rules of decorum which are translated into behaviors characteristically Vietnamese. An American teacher of an ESL class for five Vietnamese elementary school children in Arkansas observed that every time one of the children was asked to hand back to her the book used in a pattern drill, he would always give it back to her with both hands, his eyes slightly lowered. Countless other teachers and sponsors have reported that Vietnamese — children and adults alike — are unusually reserved and shy at initial encounters with Americans; it seems as if they were vainly searching in their rule book for the appropriate behavior to adopt toward the Americans who are different from them not only in looks but in behavior as well. 'Propriety' at a loss in a new cultural context!

The notion of "face", which is stereotypically overplayed in many apocryphal anecdotes about the Chinese, is also found to be associated with the Vietnamese. For the Vietnamese — they call it 'thể diện' — the notion of "face" is directly related to their concept of propriety. It is the special case when the dictates of propriety prevail over other considerations such as convenience, good sense, common wisdom or logic. As actually practiced by the Vietnamese, who are also described as a very practical people, "face" is seen to be not as strong a factor in their daily life as is commonly assumed. And the middle-aged former Vietnamese circuit judge who is now training as an auto mechanic in Virginia may have unwittingly answered for us many questions concerning the Vietnamese cultural traits such as contempt for manual labor, social class discrimination, etc.

If one knows where to look for it, this deeply-ingrained sense of proper form can be seen in many aspects of Vietnamese life. 'Tôi', the most commonly-used word for 'I' in the Vietnamese language — and there are many others in the lexicon playing the same grammatical function — etymologically has the meaning of 'servant' or 'subordinate'. The simple Anglo-Saxon personal pronoun 'you' has innumerable Vietnamese equivalents ranging from 'ông' (the gentleman) and 'em' (the younger sibling) to 'cu', to be used only for venerable aged people, and 'ngài', reserved exclusively for kings and other exalted persons.

As is reported by many Americans in Vietnam who had direct contacts with Vietnamese, this notion of propriety can sometimes be observed in behavior which, to Americans used to directness and openness, are downright perplexing. "A Vietnamese 'yes' in word can turn out to be a 'no' in deed." they said. In such instances, the common interpretation of the Vietnamese behavior has usually been that Vietnamese are reluctant to contradict, to disappoint, and generally to cause unease and discomfort in others, which, in itself, would obviously constitute a breach of propriety.

Also translated by Western scholars as 'ceremony' or 'ceremonials', the Confucian concept of 'lễ' involves, too, the observance of formal rites and rituals in many situations, both in the confines of the Vietnamese family and in the larger context of Vietnamese society. In the family, the practice of ancestor worship, for example, which involves the annual rituals commemorating the death anniversary of an ancestor or a deceased family member, is especially notable. Up until 1945, which marked the end of the long Nguyễn dynasty, there was always in the government a Ministry of Rites, called 'Bộ Lễ Nghi'.

So, when you congratulate a Vietnamese for playing the guitar very well and instead of saying 'Thank you' he says with a little embarrassment that he is really not very good at it, you should know that he is not being falsely modest; more likely, he is just being himself, probably reacting to praise in a way which came, unbeknownst to him and over two millennia ago, directly from the pages of of the Confucian Analects.

Harmony and the Pluralistic Approach to Life-manship

In surveying our collection of adjectives which writers on Vietnamese culture have used to describe the Vietnamese approach to life, we found such words as eclectic, flexible, adaptive, practical, pragmatic, non-dynamic, non-active, passive, reactive, submissive, indirect, etc. American social scientist Abraham M. Hirsh, an expert in cross-cultural communication and an astute observer of the Vietnamese value system, thinks that the Vietnamese use what he terms a "pluralistic approach to lifemanship", with a strong inclination for eclectic adaptations. In seeking to understand the Vietnamese, all these observations are well worth a closer look.

Still other observers, including many Vietnamese cultural experts, feel that the Taoist concept of harmony plays an important role in the Vietnamese system of values. This, too, needs to be made more intelligible to those who are unfamiliar with Oriental philosophies in general, and with Taoism in particular.

A Vietnamese refugee family clearly identified as Buddhist was visited at their home by a voluntary agency worker around Christmas time last year. The worker reported that right in the middle of the sparsely furnished living-room was a huge Christmas tree with all the trimmings. "Are they really Buddhist?" she asked a Vietnamese friend later, obviously confused. She was even more confused when the friend saw nothing unusual about a Christmas tree in a Buddhist home. This documented case in Washington, D.C., contains in it an element common to hundreds of other cases observed both in Vietnam and among the refugees presently in the U.S. That common element is an observable ability on the part of the Vietnamese not only to hold more than one religious belief — a Vietnamese Catholic also worships his ancestors — but to espouse more than one ideal, accept more than one solution to a problem, attempt more than one course of action, i.e. the legal course, and generally tolerate more than one absolute standard for anything.

In connection with this, Abraham Hirsh says that while Americans use a "monistic" approach to life, adopting only one in every type, class and category, the Vietnamese use a "pluralistic" approach and are comfortable only with a combination, an assortment. Americans seek out the One, the Only and give it respect, loyalty and devotion; the Vietnamese search for the alternatives, the other possibilities that will prove workable or satisfactory for their needs. Hirsh points out that an American has only one God, is married to one wife, drinks one brand of beer, reads one newspaper and follows one favorite ball team. A Vietnamese may do all that, but never to the exclusion of the other choices.

This Vietnamese search for the other alternatives can, in individual cases, take forms which, to an American, would seem unscrupulous, unethical and reprehensible. A Vietnamese refugee standing near the end of a very long chow line at Camp Indiantown Gap was once observed going to the head of the line to give his meal card to a friend and ask him to get dinner for him ahead of hundreds of others who got in line before he did. Regulations and procedures laid down by Vietnamese government agencies for rendering service to the public were reported by Vietnamese officials to be often subverted by this same public which, anxious to get service, used shortcuts and "the other alternatives" which often took the form of bribes. The old Vietnamese institution of concubinage, which was declared unlawful in the 1950's but which is still practiced by some Vietnamese, including at least two reported cases among the refugees, is seen by some observers in the same light, i.e. preference for a multiplicity of alternatives. And the laxity in the observance of laws which many American officials have noted in Vietnam is seen by these officials as a classic case of a pluralistic culture chafing under a monistically-based mode of governing people. Laws, which prescribe only one avenue as being the legal and acceptable one, are said to collide head-on with the Vietnamese pluralistic tendency to reject the One and the Only and to seek "the other possibilities".

Conrad Arensberg, another American social scientist with an interest in cross-cultural differences, points out that Americans and the peoples in the Western world have a strong tendency to make what he terms "two-fold judgments on principle". These are judgments based on fixed and impersonal principles which assign a thing or an event to one of only two categories, either to a category judged high in value, which is used as a basis for positive action, or to one judged low in value, which is to be rejected, or avoided. These two categories are clear-cut dualisms such as moral-immoral, legal-illegal, success-failure, modern-outmoded, clean-dirty, etc. The difference with a culture like the Vietnamese lies in the fact that although there are also dualisms in their value system, they usually do not rank one term of a dualism absolutely good and superior in strength and value, and thus actionable on principle, and at the same time reject the other, again on principle. There seems to be with them more willingness to accept a range of relative norms rather than one absolute criterion; and they usually display a higher degree of tolerance that allows for the acceptance of both terms of a dualism. American officials with experience in Vietnam have reported that government corruption, for example, was viewed by the Vietnamese common people with distaste, but the disapproval was rarely very strong and certainly never raised to the level of Arenberg's "two-fold judgment on principle". There seem to be many norms by which to judge an action, and in dealing with right and wrong, although the Vietnamese embrace right, they do not always reject wrong out of hand. It's not that they condone wrong, these Americans say, but they view it with an equanimity that can easily be interpreted as indifference. This may explain the general mood of impatience which, many observers of the American involvement in Vietnam reported, was a frequently-seen feature in the relations between the American technical advisers and the Vietnamese counterparts they advised. "It boils down to a different approach to problem-solving," one insightful former American adviser said. And he recalled with a chuckle Rudyard Kipling's suggestion of an epitaph for an Englishman in Asia: "Here lies a fool who tried to hustle the East."

The dualism of good and evil is viewed by Vietnamese the same ambiguous way. Seen from an American perspective, good and evil seem to be in a state of coexistence in the Vietnamese system, and in this eternal coexistence, each must have its due. As seen by Hirsh, life, for Americans, is a series of Armageddons, great and small, daily to be waged between good and evil, the outcome of which must be the triumph of good. There must always be a winner, and the winner must always be good. For the Vietnamese, there is no Armageddon. The presence of both good and evil is recognized in the Mainstream of Life which is a blend of both. And "lifemanship consists in successfully existing or surviving, as best one can, in that mainstream".

As seen through Western eyes, it is not so much evil or wrong that is condemned; it is excess, a lack of measure, of proportions. This has led many Western observers to draw attention to the importance of 'trung dung', or the Doctrine of the Mean, in Vietnamese behavior. Religious and metaphysical in its essence, as contrasted with Đại Học, or the Great Learning, mentioned earlier, which is ethical and social, the Doctrine of the Mean is embodied in the Chinese classic of the same name attributed to the philosopher Tzu Ssu, 483-402 B.C. A subject of philosophical interpretations and reinterpretations throughout the ages, this doctrine, which exerts a strong influence on the Chinese from the beginning and later on on the Vietnamese, sees sincerity as the Way of all existence, "absolute, intelligent, and indestructible". It is the basis on which the concept of central harmony is built. As practiced by the Vietnamese as a value orientation, 'trung dung' is commonly understood to be the 'middle path', the avoidance of excess.

In philosophical terms, the inclination on the part of the Vietnamese to refuse to follow just one system or one line has been associated with eclecticism; and their tendency to search out the other alternatives, the working combination, has been labeled syncretism. Syncretism requires an ability to reconciliate opposing principles and practices in an effort to make them work harmoniously. Thus, the Vietnamese syncretism is seen to stem from a harmony-orientation.

The concept of harmony originated from Taoism, a philosophy embodied in the Tao-te-Ching, a classic on 'Tao' and 'te', or the "Way" and its "virtue". Commonly attributed to Lao-Tzu, a Chinese philosopher in th 6th century B.C., Taosim, which exerted a strong influence on both Buddhism and Confucianism in China, is believed by Vietnamese cultural historians to have played a very important role in the development of the Vietnamese cultural personality.

Although in its extreme metaphysical abstraction, Tao, or the Way, is the very principle which actuates the physical universe, in its everyday application as a way of life, Tao, or the Way, is naturalism in the sense of "taking no unnatural action". It is the respect of spontaneity and simplicity, "supporting things in their natural state". Also a form of serenity, tranquility and alert quietism, Taoism sets the natural Way in direct opposition to the artificial ways of men, such as regulations, organization, and conventions. The Taoist seeks the realization of self through the achievement of harmony in his emotions, and the natural and harmonious development of all things. Often likened to water or the infant, Tao is strength in weakness. Taoists point out that nothing is weaker than water, but yet it can wear out a rock, the most solid of things; and in the Japanese martial art of judo or hand combat, the approach of which is believed to reflect elements of Taoism, a weak person can easily floor a stronger opponent if, instead of interfering with the latter's great strength, he knows how to go along with it and work with it to his advantage. This, in essence, is the meaning of such cryptic sentences quoted by Taoists, as: "Tao benefits all things but does not compete with them," or "Tao invariably takes no action, and yet there is nothing left undone." Experts believe there are deep cross-cultural implications in this subconscious-level orientation toward non-interference, non-confrontation, alert passivity, and — to Western eyes — this essentially non-dynamic behavior when, as during the Vietnam war, Americans and Vietnamese have to work closely together. The difference in their respective approaches to work, play, government, problem-solving, etc. can be so great that, if particular care is not taken, it can lead to disaster. Probably this is what cross-cultural communication specialists have in mind when they see American difficulties in Vietnam as essentially stemming from a clash between two radically different cultures, as mentioned earlier. Douglas Pike, author of the book Việt Cộng, says that American frustration in Vietnam derived from a "crisis in perception" that originated from "a failure in definition". Frances Fitzgerald, in her book Fire in the Lake, sees the differences between Vietnamese and Americans as being not only quantitative but also qualitative, and that these differences are so great that, for mutual understanding to take place, "one side will have to reconstruct the whole world of the other".

Seen in the light of value orientations, Taoism avoids conflict, and rejects confrontation. It is harmony-oriented. As inculcated into the Vietnamese for over two millennia, this harmony-orientation is believed to be one of the most prominent features in the Vietnamese character. It is precisely the basis for the use of such characterizations as flexible, non-dynamic, non-active, passive, indirect, etc. which, earlier, we have seen used for the Vietnamese.

A famous South Vietnamese general was once reported to leave the active life and retire to plant orchids in the serenity of his garden, a true Taoist course of action which all Vietnamese understand. Vietnamese refugee children have often been reported to refrain from asking questions of their American teachers even when they do not understand a point being made, refusing to confront the teacher with an unpleasant fact. And as was discussed earlier, if a frank 'no' disturbs propriety or perhaps also jars too much the inner harmony of the emotions, a Vietnamese might give you a 'yes'. Is he being untruthful? It might help matters related to the Vietnamese refugees if, before judging, we stop to think that maybe he is just being a Vietnamese, a prisoner of his own culture just as much as we are prisoners of ours.

A Sense of Permanence

In looking at all the orientation materials prepared by various organizations to help Americans work with the Vietnamese refugees, we notice that nearly all of them contain a reference about punctuality. In essence, the message is this: 'Due to a different concept of time inherent in their culture, the Vietnamese are usually not very punctual. Try to understand.'

While most experts agree that a different concept of time exists, they feel that actually the difference is not so simple as can be neatly translated into incorrigible tardiness on the part of the Vietnamese. In fact, officials involved in English instruction at the refugee camp at Fort Chaffee, Arkansas, reported exactly the opposite. Frequently the students were seen to come to class very early, sometimes an hour ahead of class time. And even though nearly 15,000 telephone calls have been received at the National Indochinese Clearinghouse, all concerning the refugees, not a single one substantiated the initial American concern in this regard. Instances of tardiness, of course, must have occurred. But was it because of a different cultural value, or perhaps just plain unfamiliarity with the bus system?

Rather than being overly concerned about Vietnamese punctuality — a concern which may or may not betray something of our American concept of time — let us look at the observations that have been made about the way the Vietnamese themselves use time. It has been reported by many American sources that personal visits by the Vietnamese usually last longer than that unspecified but clearly felt duration which the American inner clock unerringly detects. The visits are unhurried, relaxed, and, to these Americans' consternation, usually unannounced.

Other indicators of the Vietnamese use of time have also been observed. In their various purchases, the Vietnamese are reported to pay much more attention to durability than Americans would. A Vietnamese man of average means in Washington, D.C. is known to have spent nearly two years looking for a brick house to buy. Newly-arrived Vietnamese in the U.S. are observed to walk considerably more slowly than Americans or Vietnamese who have lived in the U.S. for a long time. In looking for a job, the Vietnamese are reported to give much greater consideration to its permanent nature than Americans. One Vietnamese cultural informant says that Americans and Vietnamese both get impatient with one thing or another; but he feels that comparatively speaking, it takes longer for a Vietnamese to become impatient than for an American. "The Vietnamese cultural clock walks; the American cultural clock runs." he says. It is also a generally known fact that a Vietnamese family lives in a home a considerably longer time than an American family does, and that, statistically, Vietnamese marriages last longer.

All these disparate observations and innumerable others made both by Americans and Vietnamese have formed the basis for some insights that can cast light on the basic differences between the two cultures. Many observers feel that the need for a sense of permanence in life, although present in all Americans, is much stronger in the the Vietnamese. Customs, traditions, and other things do change, but they change much more slowly with the Vietnamese. The pace of change is more relaxed and is such that Alvin Toeffler's notion of future shock is something difficult for the Vietnamese to grasp. One observer remarks that, in this connection, to try to resettle a barefoot Vietnamese fisherman from Quãng Nam to Houston, for example, would be tantamount to asking him to make a quantum jump in time of a century. (Actually, such a jump was made by thousands of Vietnamese whose level of sophistication is about that of a Quãng Nam barefoot fisherman, including, in fact, a number of fishermen. One can only imagine the observable as well as unobservable problems of cross-cultural adjustment on their part.)

The Vietnamese sense of permanence can also be seen in the Vietnamese view of death. A link between the dead and the living is maintained by way of the annual family rituals of commemoration held for each deceased family member. On the day of each commemoration, called 'kỵ' or 'giỗ', an actual meal — usually more elaborate than an ordinary family meal — is prepared and served on the family altar, where incense and aromatic joss sticks are burned.

There are indications that the Vietnamese conceive of change as being cyclical. Experts often point out the cyclical character of the Vietnamese traditional duo-decimal system of counting years, and the belief, common among the Vietnamese including the non-Buddhist, in reincarnation. One informant surmises that probably the Vietnamese intuitively sense the cyclical nature of the earth's ecology early in their cultural history.

With a cultural clock "walking" rather than "running", a Vietnamese is more accustomed to a day that is less hurried than an American's day. In this sense, it will be some time before the Vietnamese refugees become used to the activity-packed day of life in the U.S.

With a different value placed on time, the Vietnamese refugees can be expected to subordinate time to other "more important" considerations such as 'heart', 'propriety', etc.; and thus, personal visits tend to last longer, and tardiness, if it occurs, may be viewed with less seriousness and righteous indignation by Vietnamese than Americans. This is really what the issue of Vietnamese punctuality is all about.

A Clash of Values

In talks conducted over the past year with hundreds of Vietnamese about their culture, and in the voluminous body of literature written about the Vietnamese over the past twenty years, we have encountered time and again evidence of what amounts to a flaw in the Vietnamese character: difficulty in surbordinating personality to rationality in group enterprises. Readily admitted to by almost all the Vietnamese informants we talked to, and abundantly reported on during the Vietnam war by the American press as well as by other sources less interested in political and military implications, this difficulty is often seen to translate into a short sense of mutual cooperation, and a low spirit of unity which the Vietnamese themselves bluntly refer to by the phrase 'thiếu tinh thần đoàn kết', literally 'lack of a spirit of unity'.

It is pointed out to us that the Vietnamese take part in interest groups, associations and organizations much less than Americans do, and the life of those groups tends to be shorter than the American equivalents. "It seems as if the extended family is the only group that really counts for the Vietnamese." an American observer once remarked. Another American informant feels that there seems to be a distinct inability on the part of the Vietnamese to work together harmoniously on anything. This remark, when stripped of its harshness and its pejorative overtone, is felt by several more dispassionate observers to contain a very important clue to the Vietnamese character. The clue lies in the term 'harmoniously'. How is it that a presumably harmony-oriented people cannot work together harmoniously? Either the presumption of a harmony-orientation is wrong, or there must be something else acting against it. The general sense of the answer we have received from many sources is as follows: the harmony-orientation is there, but it is interfered with by the Vietnamese preoccupation with the person. In other words, there is a clash in the Vietnamese between two deeply inplanted cultural values: harmony and personalism.

While the validity of such an interpretation is better left to cultural anthropologists and philosophers, it is useful to look at the particular Vietnamese behavior patterns and attitudes that have given rise to such an interpretation. In other words, let us look at the data rather than the theories, valid or non-valid.

Vietnamese we have consulted invariably point to the overseas Chinese, i.e. those living outside of Taiwan and China, as possessing an admirable spirit of mutual trust, cooperation and unity which they themselves lack. The examples the Vietnamese use to illustrate this are difficult to check, but are abundant. They report that the overseas Chinese loan each other tens of thousands of dollars without a word being written down on paper, something they, the Vietnamese, are almost "constitutionally" unable to do; the Chinese in the Chinatowns all over the world take care of each other while the Vietnamese living outside of Vietnam reportedly don't. These and many other examples seem to us to point to something revealing. It is not that the Vietnamese do not value mutual trust and cooperation and unity. They would not have admired the Chinese so much, otherwise. It seems as if, while admiring these qualities, they do not know how to practice them.

In a study of a small and poor Vietnamese urban community in South Vietnam, two American sociologists reported a very low sense of public consciousness, and a very weak interest that bordered on indifference about matters that affected the viability of the community as a whole. In another study on Vietnamese values, conducted in 1968 by Human Sciences Research, Inc. and entitled 'Americans and Vietnamese: a Comparison of Values in Two Cultures', it is reported that the Vietnamese showed a very low peer-orientation, with the subsequent inference that "the collaborative tendency among the Vietnamese is weak." The American anthropologist James B. Hendry, in his study of a Vietnamese rural hamlet also reported a very scant display of community spirit among the hamlet residents. The level of tension and dissension that exists in any organization or group, Vietnamese or American, is reported to be higher in the Vietnamese and is observed to be based mostly on conflicts of personality and a certain inflexibility that makes compromise difficult to accept. Here, another important question can be asked. How is it that a presumably flexible and adaptable people cannot make compromise? Again experts refer us to the strong Vietnamese orientation toward personalism. And again, leaving philosophical interpretations alone, we see a contradiction in behavior, a clash of cultural values in the Vietnamese, just as is perceived to exist in other cultures. In fact, it's precisely these clashes and contradictions that, experts feel, lend depth to the understanding of a people's character.

The Vietnamese refugee resettlement program in the U.S. is run more by an idea, a concept, than by men. That concept is volunteerism. This volunteerism is embodied by the voluntary agencies such as the Church World Service, the U.S. National Catholic Conference, the International Rescue Committee, etc. In the light of the low sense of community spirit seen in the Vietnamese and reported above, we can assume that the Vietnamese refugees are largely inexperienced in working within the framework of such a concept. Vietnamese informants usually raise a note of caution here. They point out that their people are not completely unfamiliar with voluntary organizations, since there are voluntary charitable organizations in their culture. But the Vietnamese practice volunteerism much less, and consequently are much less experienced at it than Americans are. Suspicions of the altruistic motives of the voluntary agencies as well as other negative views that may have been expressed by the refugees are better understood if seen in the light of such inexperience. The cultural root of such attitudes, of course, goes deeper: i.e., weak peer-orientation, born of a strong sense of personalism, in a heart-based culture. The Vietnamese refugees now live in a society which is almost diametrically the opposite, and therefore cross-cultural misunderstandings and conflicts are bound to occur.

A Note of Caution By Way of Conclusion

Someone once said that when you are in a forest you see only trees. Specialists in intercultural relations run the risk of seeing Vietnamese behavior solely in the light of cross-cultural differences, forgetting the personality traits that are embedded in them by their particular life experiences. Recently a Vietnamese refugee housewife was observed loudly protesting at a store over a merchandise exchange. "Where is her Confucian sense of propriety?" an American who had read the rough draft of this paper jokingly asked. "Confucius lost on that one," was the reply he got.

These personality traits, which are part of the uniqueness of each individual born on this earth, in addition to a host of other situational considerations, are what make Vietnamese react so differently in any given situation. Furthermore, when combined with the varying degrees in which a particular cultural value is absorbed by different individuals, personality traits make predicting the behavior of the Vietnamese, or of any other people for that matter, both a risky and foolish business.

A note of caution should also be sounded on the danger of stereotypes. Just as the Vietnamese refugees have stereotypical pictures of Americans, which will be altered only after a long residence in the U.S., Americans have stereotypical images of the Vietnamese, good and bad. They come from hearsay, things we have read, and isolated observations based on occasional encounters, from which we make generalizations. And generalizations about a people are risky when they constitute the basis for action. An elderly American elementary school teacher in California who had difficulty disciplining the several Vietnamese children she had in her classroom was once heard to exclaim in frustration: "Why can't they behave like Vietnamese children for a change?" Clearly a stereotypical picture of a Vietnamese child had been planted in her mind: Perhaps a generalization to the effect that all Vietnamese children are quiet, polite, and obedient.

We can indulge in a little dialectic here. It has been said that 'all generalizations are false, including this one'. What that statement really means is that it, too, is false. And if that statement is false, then it follows that there are generalizations that are true. We hope this chapter, a product derived from many sources, has offered you not generalizations, however false or true, but some insights into that most fascinating but also most difficult subject of study, the Vietnamese character. In seeking to understand the Vietnamese, we again call your attention to the little Vietnamese saying:

> Đi lâu mới biết đường dài,
> Ở lâu mới biết con người phải chăng.

> Just as the length of a road is known only by actually traveling on it,
> The qualities of a man are known only by living with him for a long time.

19

SOME SPECIFIC CROSS-CULTURAL CONSIDERATIONS

Over the past year and half, in the course of activities conducted by the National Indochinese Clearinghouse, a sizable number of instances have been reported to us where an Indochinese refugee child experienced a clash of culture, i.e., a conflict between his own culture and the American one. The cross-cultural differences which were highlighted by these reported clashes covered a wide range of customs and practices peculiar to each country. As was mentioned earlier in this Manual where a profile of the refugee child was discussed, the Vietnamese or Cambodian or Laotian child in the U.S. was often subjected to a tug-of-war between the forces of two cultures. Following are a few documented cases to illustrate the predicament of the child as well as the differences which exist between the society from which he has been uprooted and the new society into which he has been transplanted.

Case 1.

A Vietnamese girl in the 10th grade in Missouri reportedly refused to go to her gym class. When asked for a valid reason by the gym teacher, she simply said she didn't like gym. Only much later did the real reason came out as she revealed it to a Vietnamese friend. She objected to being seen bare-legged, wearing gym shorts. Coming from a region of Vietnam where old customs and traditions were still strong, and where women, young and old, were never to be seen bare-legged, she confessed to an intense feeling of discomfort when the gym hour came around.

To provide a sense of measure to this interesting case, however, we must add here the case of two other Vietnamese high school girls — one in Georgia, the other in Maryland — who were drum majorettes for their respective high school bands last year. Not all young Vietnamese refugee girls were like the one in Missouri, or, to approach the issue from the other direction, not all of them were like the two drum majorettes.

Case 2.

An eight-year-old Vietnamese child in an elementary school in Maryland complained of a stomach-ache every day shortly after his lunch hour. His teacher was mystified by the fact that the same food and milk did not make any other child in the class sick. The cause was later identified to be the fresh milk which was perfectly good, but to which the boy's biological system was not accustomed.

Fresh milk is likely to give some Vietnamese, young as well as old, an upset stomach. Their bodies are said not to produce the type of enzyme which helps to digest fresh milk. Having never had fresh pasteurized cow milk in his life, the boy's upset stomach was an unexpected, but not too surprising example of the differences between Vietnam and the U.S.

Case 3.

A Cambodian girl of fourteen at a school in Virginia was fond of wearing to school a little gold swastika on a fine gold chain around her neck. The whole class was intrigued by the unusual object she chose for a pendant. One day a boy, unable to contain his curiosity any longer, said to her: "Hey, are you a member of the American Nazi Party, or something?" She felt embarrassed and wanted to take the pendant off, but her mother insisted that she continue to wear it.

As it turned out, the social science teacher missed a good opportunity to teach the class a lesson, not in manners necessarily, but in social science as it pertains to the different religions of the world. The class never found out that the little swastika pendant was actually a Buddhist religious symbol often worn by Cambodian and Vietnamese women as a token of blessing or good luck.

Case 4.

A Vietnamese twelfth grader in Washington was absent from school for three consecutive days. When he returned to school the following Monday he brought with him a note saying that he had to stay home the previous Wednesday, Thursday and Friday because he had to be on hand to observe the rituals of the death anniversary of his grandfather. This excuse was accepted by all his teachers except one. This one had some knowledge of Vietnamese ritualistic observances and found the boy's absence of three days suspiciously too long for death anniversary rites. Under questioning the boy admitted he had played hooky and had thought of this Vietnamese traditional practice as an excuse to impress his less-than-culture-wise teachers. Such good cultural detective work requiring great familiarity on the part of a teacher with Vietnamese culture is rare, however.

Case 5.

In a science class at a high school in the Midwest, a Vietnamese girl was paired with an American boy for lab work. The pair did not work well together and the girl, clearly needing help from her partner, never asked for help. She seemed to prefer a poor grade to receiving help from the boy. Noticing the uneasiness between the two, the sharp-eyed teacher split the pair. He found out later that the Vietnamese girl had rarely associated with boys before and had felt intense embarrassment at having to work closely with a boy for the first time.

Even though there was co-education in Vietnam, boys and girls usually did not communicate or interact as frequently and as casually as in the U.S. And although a mixed group did go out to have fun together, no definite pairing was involved. Single dating as it is practiced in the U.S. is rare, and where it is adopted by a boy and a girl it usually means that they have reached the stage which, in the U.S., would be called "going steady".

Case 6.

A Laotian boy was a top-notch scholar in his 12th grade class at home. He was an Honor student and was at the top of his class in all the subjects. Last fall, repeating 12th grade as a refugee teen-ager in a high school in Washington D.C., he received three successive warning notices for poor work in biology toward the middle of the semester. Thus in a short period of six months, i.e., the time that it took him to move from his high school in Laos to the one in the U.S., he turned from a brilliant scholar to a pathetic near-flunkee, and all due to his inability to speak the English language. It was quite a blow to his pride and his self-esteem. The biology teacher graded his paper just like any other paper, without any consideration for his serious language handicap.

The language problem still plagues the refugees, and for many students it has also caused a cultural problem: the loss of face. There are indications that the children are making better progress than the adults, but there needs to be, on the part of American teachers, an understanding of the consequences of failure for a refugee student.

This six cases presented above are just samples. The list could go on and on. These case histories become important only as a way of sensitizing the American teacher to the enormous needs of refugee children. Rather than presenting other incidents, we urge teachers to look, listen, be cautious and solicitous, and ask questions.

5: APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

NATIONAL INDOCHINESE CLEARINGHOUSE • CENTER FOR APPLIED LINGUISTICS
1611 North Kent Street, Arlington, Virginia 22209
Toll-free Hotline (800) 336-3040

INDOCHINESE REFUGEE EDUCATION GUIDES

Preschool Education Series:

1. English as a Second Language in Kindergarten: Orientation and Scheduling
2. English as a Second Language in Kindergarten: Teaching Pronunciation and Grammar
3. English as a Second Language in Kindergarten: Testing Young Children
4. English as a Second Language in Kindergarten: Language and Concept Development

Elementary Education Series:

1. On Keeping Lines of Communication with Indochinese Children Open
2. Classroom Instructions in Vietnamese/Inside the Classroom
3. Vietnamese History, Literature & Folklore
4. Classroom Instructions in Vietnamese/Outside the Classroom
5. Continuing English Studies During the Summer
6. Supplemental ESL Activities for Classroom Teachers

Intermediate/Secondary Education Series:

1. Vietnamese History, Literature & Folklore
2. Detailed Content of Vietnamese Secondary Curriculum
3. Continuing English Studies During the Summer

General Information Series:

1. Hints for Tutors
2. Testing English Language Proficiency
3. Education in Vietnam: Fundamental Principles and Curricula
4. Teaching English Pronunciation to Vietnamese
5. Textbooks and Classes for ESL
6. A Brief Look at the Vietnamese Language: Sounds & Spellings
7. Testing the Reading Ability of Cambodians
8. Academic Resources for Language & Culture
9. A Selected Bibliography of Dictionaries
10. Teaching English Pronunciation to Speakers of Black Tai (Tai Dam)
11. Teaching English Structures to the Vietnamese
12. Supplement to: "An Annotated Bibliography for Teaching English to Vietnamese"
13. Perspectives on a Cross-Cultural Problem: Getting to Know the Vietnamese

Adult Education Series:

1. Teaching English to Adult Refugees
2. Bibliography of Adult ESL Materials
3. Towards Methods of Learning English (In Viet./Cambodian/English)
4. ESL Reading Materials for Adults
5. Recreational Reading in Viet.
6. How to Teach Adult ESL: A Guide fo Volunteers

Educational Administrator Series:

1. On Assimilating Vietnamese & Cambodian Students into U.S. Schools
2. Meeting the English Language Needs of Indochinese Students

Personnel Resources Directory Supplements:

Sept., 1975--A Personnel Resources Directory for the Education of Indochinese Refugees
October, 1975 -- Supplement #1
November, 1975 -- Supplement #2
November, 1975 -- Supplement #3
December, 1975 -- Supplement #4
May, 1976 -- Supplement #5
July, 1976 -- Supplement #6

Bilingual/Bicultural Education Series:

1. Information for Administrators & Teachers
2. A Selected, Annotated Bibliography on Bilingual/Bicultural Education
3. A Model for Bilingual Language Skill Building

Indochinese Refugee Alert Bulletins:

#1 August, 1975
#2 September, 1975
#3 October, 1975
#4 February, 1976
#5 March/April, 1976

Indochinese Refugee Education Guides

3.

GENERAL INFORMATION SERIES: Education in Vietnam: Fundamental Principles and Curricula

Our efforts to reconstruct the curricula taught in Vietnam were greatly hampered by the lack of information available in this country concerning education in Vietnam. However, we were greatly assisted by the generosity of Dr. Hal O. Hall of USAID who shared the materials which he had acquired while serving in Vietnam; by Dr. Gordon Van Hooft of the New York State Department of Education, who generously provided his working papers on curriculum reform in Vietnam, as well as agreeing to read and comment on our paper; and by Dr. John E. King of Southern Illinois University and his associate, Mr. Henry Petraki, who furnished some of the information obtained by the SIU Vietnam Research Group.

Introduction and General Survey................................ p. 2

Principles Underlying the Revision of the Elementary Education Curriculum.. p. 4

Charts:

Hours of Instruction in Elem. Ed. by Subject and Grade....... p. 6

Hours of Instruction in 1st Cycle of Secondary School........ p. 7

Hours of Instruction in 2nd Cycle of Secondary School........ p. 8

A Model Curriculum Plan (Thu Duc Demonstration School)....... p. 9

Elementary Curriculum Guides:

Grade Five.. p. 10

Grade Four.. p. 11

Grade Three... p. 13

Grade Two... p. 15

Grade One... p. 18

Introduction and General Survey

When Vietnamese children enter American public schools this year, not all the problems will be theirs. Administrators, counselors and teachers will face the problem of orienting, placing and counseling children from schools, and from a culture, vastly different from their own. In an effort to familiarize American educators with the Vietnamese education system, this guide has been prepared.

Vietnam, like most countries except the United States, had a national education system. Programs of study from pre-school through university, administrative procedures, teacher-training and placement were all directed by the Ministry of Education in Saigon. Due to the inability of such a centrally-run system to enforce decisions, policy changes were frequently implemented in different regions with differing degrees of effectiveness. Hence, any curriculum description will necessarily have to be viewed as ideal, rather than actual. However, it is hoped that the following discussion will at least give a basic grounding, a starting point, as it were, for the difficult job of student placement.

In principle, education in Vietnam was free and mandatory for all children from age six through the first five primary grades. Of course, not all areas were able to serve all children. Elementary schools offered a general program which was at once terminal in nature but also prepared the pupil for secondary education. The class was teacher-oriented, and the curricula were geared toward memorization and repetition. Respect for the teacher as a symbol of learning and culture was profound. Based largely on the French system, education was by observation, rather than by experimentation.

After the primary years, the child entered a secondary school, either studying vocational arts or the humanities and science. The secondary years were divided into two cycles: The first cycle running for 4 years, and the second for 3. Essentially, the second cycle intensified and broadened the student's knowledge of work covered in the first cycle. (In fact, intensification of knowledge through repetition is a standard feature of Vietnamese education.)

Most students were placed in one of the four academic tracks: modern literature, classical literature, mathematics or experimental science. Because of the rapid increase of population in urban centers, where most secondary schools were located, there was a growing lack of spaces in educational establishments; thus students tended to be drawn from the middle and upper classes and reflected the educational and cultural goals and values of those classes. Only recently, with an attitude shift away from "academics" to "practical" skills had vocational education begun to play a role in Vietnamese education.

Another result of the shortage of public school places was the emergence of a parallel system of private education, modeled on the public schools, but with considerably less demanding standards of admission. (These schools were inspected by Ministry of Education inspectors, however, and private school students took the finishing exams jointly with public school students.)

Within the academic branch, mathematics, literature, philosophy, biology, chemistry, French and English were important areas of study. Using the lecture method developed in Europe, the students were expected to memorize the subject matter, rather than engaging in critical study. The elective system, as is used in this country was unknown to Vietnamese students. Hence, your new students will require more careful counseling in course selection than a student familiar with our system of self-contained electives and credit-accumulation. The Vietnamese system was largely examination-oriented, culminating in the Baccalaureate II, a competitive examination which was taken at the end of seven years of secondary education.

We have not attempted to fully describe the secondary curriculum for a variety of reasons. It should be remembered that academic training within a specific discipline on the secondary level is basically uniform around the world. That is, in a mathematics course in Vietnam, the U.S. or Venezuela, students will study algebra, geometry, advanced algebra and trigonometry. Similarly in a history series, while different education systems may stress different methodologies, or a particular political perspective, the basic facts and relationships will remain the same. In order to understand the secondary system as it operated in Vietnam, one must remember that it stressed the lecture method, memorization of facts, and employed learning by observation, rather than encouraging discovery learning.

The Vietnamese pupil, on both the elementary and secondary level will not only be continuing his education in a language which may be unfamiliar to him, but he will also be studying in an environment and in a style unknown to him. The greater freedom he will enjoy, the higher demands on his self-reliance and creativity, the shift from memorization to problem-solving and the encouragement for debate and argumentation may all be expected to complicate his situation and, initially, at least, may intensify his disorientation.

The following summary of curricula has been prepared to help educators help the child. The summary indicates what the Ministry of Education wanted taught; however, given the distance between the Ministry and the schools, the difficult conditions under which education was carried out and the relative lack of teacher preparation, what the child actually learned may have been somewhat different. This, coupled with the fact that very few parents were able to obtain school records before they left Vietnam, will pose problems in assessing what the child has learned. However, it is hoped that having this guide will provide a starting point for the job of student placement.

One of the things you may wish to do before placing a student is to conduct an interview with the student and his parents. Vietnamese parents have very strong feelings about education and culture. They will probably view education as basically a matter of academic skill-acquisition which should afford their child an opportunity to go to university and maintain or advance the family's social position. To facilitate the interview, you may wish to obtain the services of an interpreter. Very often, the parents will be able to provide concrete information about the program of studies which their child was pursuing.

Principles Underlying the Revision of the Elementary Education Curriculum

Reprinted from: Elementary Education Curriculum; Dept. of National Education, Saigon, Vietnam, 1960.

I. Fundamental principles of education in Vietnam

A) Education in Vietnam must be a humanist education, respecting the sacred character of the human being, regarding man as an end in himself, and aiming at the full development of man.

B) Education in Vietnam must be a national education, respecting the traditional values, assuring the continuity of man with his natural environment (his family, profession and country), aiming at safeguarding the nation, its prosperity and the collective promotion of its people.

C) Education in Vietnam must be an open education, respecting the scientific mind as a factor of progress, attempting to develop the social and democratic spirit, and welcoming all the authentic cultural values of the world.

II. Characteristics of Elementary Education in Vietnam

Based on the three fundamental principles of education in Vietnam, elementary education must have the following characteristics:

A) It respects the personality of the child. Educators should:

1) Help the child to develop harmoniously and fully according to his nature and the natural laws governing physical and psychological growth.

2) Take into consideration the individuality and the particular abilities of the child.

3) Practice extensively discipline by self-criticism.

4) Avoid all punishment that may effect the child's personality negatively.

B) It develops the national spirit.

1) Take as objects of study the common people's way of life as well as the social situation of the country.

2) Use national history to teach the children to love the country, to praise the fighting spirit of the people, to love one another and to stay united.

3) Use the Vietnamese language as the efficient means to develop national ideals.

4) Teach the children to appreciate the beauty of the Vietnamese landscape, the abundant natural resources of the country; and the traditional qualities of the people.

5) Preserve the traditional principles and the good customs of the nation.

6) Develop self-confidence, self-sufficiency and self-reliance.

C) It fosters the democratic and scientific spirit.

1) Promote the organization of "self-governed" groups, develop the spirit of community (collective play and work) and collective consciousness.

2) Develop judgement, sense of responsibility and discipline.

3) Stimulate the child's curiosity and develop his scientific spirit.

4) Eliminate supersitions.

5) Welcome all foreign cultural values while developing at the same time the national spirit.

NUMBER OF HOURS PER WEEK OF INSTRUCTION IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION BY GRADE AND SUBJECT

SUBJECT	Grade 5*	Grade 4	Grade 3	Grade 2	Grade 1
1. Vietnamese Language					
a. Vocabulary & Reading	5.5	3.6	3.6	3.75	3.75
b. Recitation	1	1	1.5	.50	.50
c. Penmanship	2.5	1	1	.50	.50
d. Dictation/Grammar	.50	1.33	1.5	1.75	1.75
e. Composition		1.50	1.50	1.50	1.50
2. Moral Ed & Civics	2.12	2.12	2.60	2.50	2.50
3. History	/	/	1	1	1
4. Geography	/	/	1	1	1
5. Math	2.5	3	3	3.90	3.90
6. Drawing	1.60	.90	.90	.90	.90
7. Home Ec **	/	/	/	1.90	1.90
8. Activities	1	1	2	2	2
9. Science	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.50
10. Phys Ed	1.60	1.60	1.60	2	2
11. Child Care **	/	/	/	.50	.50

* For a long time, the Vietnamese system, like the French, named the classes in descending order. Thus, a child entered the 5th grade at age 6 and finished primary education in Grade 1 at about age 11. However, in recent years this has been changed to a system of names more correspondent with the American system. But in this discussion we will adhere to the former system. For interview purposes, the educator is advised to ask how many years of schooling the child has completed rather than what grade he was in.

** Girls only

PRESENT REGULAR 1ST CYCLE OF SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM

(Hours/Week)

SUBJECT	GRADE				TOTAL HOURS
	6	7	8	9	
Vietnamese	6	6	6	6	24
History - (1)	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	6
Geography	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	6
Civics	1	1	1	2	5
Modern Language	6	6	5	5	22
Mathematics	3	3	3.5	3.5	13
Natural Science	1	1.5	1.5	2	6
Physics	1	1	1.5	1.5	5
Chemistry	1	1	1	1	4
TOTAL	22	22.5	22.5	24	91
Physical Education, gymnastics, youth activities	3	3	3	3	12
Handicraft (boys) (2)	1	1	1	1	4
Home Economics (girls) (3)	1	1	1	1	4
Music	1	1	1	1	4
TOTAL	28	28.5	28.5	30	115

NOTES:

(1) History and geography are given a total of 3 hours/week for each year, with 1½ hours indicated for each.

(2) Separate courses are described -- handicrafts, carpentry, metalworking, and electrical.

(3) Courses are sewing, child care, and cooking.

SECOND-CYCLE SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM

(Hours/Week)

(Sections: A - Experimental Sciences, B - Mathematics,
C - Modern Languages, D - Classical Languages)

REQUIRED SUBJECTS	GRADE			REQUIRED HOURS IN SECTIONS	TOTAL HOURS
	10	11	12		
Vietnamese	3	4	0 (2)	A + B	7 (9)
	5	6	0 (3)	C + D	11 (14)
History - Geography	3	3	3 (2)	A + B	9 (8)
	3	3	3	C + D	9
Civics	2	2	1	A, B, C, D	5
Philosophy	0	0	3	B	3
	0	0	4	A	4
	0	0	9 (8)	C + D	9 (8)
Modern Language I	4	4	3	A + B	11
	6	6	6	C + D	18
Modern Language II	0	0	0	D	0
	4	4	3	A + B	11
	6	6	6 (4)	C	18 (16)
Classical Language	0	0	0	A, B, C	0
	6	6	6 (4)	D	18 (16)
Physics	½	½	½	C + D	1½
	3	3	5	A + B	11
Chemistry	½	½	½	C + D	1½
	1½	1½	2	A + B	5
Mathematics	1	1	1	C + D	3
	4	4	5 (4)	A	13 (12)
	6	6	9 (8)	B	21 (20)
Natural Science	1	1	1	B, C, D	3
	3	3	4	A	10
TOTAL (Minimum-Maximum)	25-27½	26-28½	28-30		79-86
ELECTIVES Boys	2	2	2		6
Girls	3	3	3		9

The numbers in parentheses represent changes effective in 1974-75 as the result of a new requirement for Vietnamese in Grade 12.

AN EXAMPLE OF A SECOND-CYCLE CURRICULUM,

THE THU DUC DEMONSTRATION SCHOOL, 1972-73

Sections: I - Literature, II A - Science, II B - Math/Science, III A - Business Education/Accounting, III B - Business Education/Office Practice, IV A - Industrial Arts/Specialized, IV B - Industrial Arts/Math.

REQUIRED SUBJECTS	GRADE			REQUIRED IN SECTIONS	TOTAL HOURS
	10	11	12		
Vietnamese	3	3	2	IIA, IIIA, IVA, B	8
	5	5	3	I, IIIB	13
Social Studies	4	4	4	I, II, III, IV	12
Philosophy	0	0	3	II, III, IV	3
	0	0	6	I	6
Modern Language I	5	5	5	II, IIIA, IV	15
	6	6	6	I, IIIB	18
Modern Language II	4	4	4	I, IIIB	12
Mathematics	0	4	0	I, IIIB	4
	4	4	3	IVA	11
	4	4	4	IIIA	12
	4	4	5	IIA	13
	6	7	9	IIB, IVB	22
Physics-Chemistry	0	4	4	I, IIIB	8
	4	4	3	IVA	11
	4	4	0	IIIA	8
	5	6	6	II, IVB	17
Natural Science	3	0	0	I, IIB, III, IV	3
	4	4	4	IIA	12
Physical Education	2	2	2	I, II, III, IV	6
Business Education	5	6	9	IIIA	20
	5	6	6	IIIB	17
Industrial Arts	4	6	4	IVB	14
	7	9	10	IVA	26
Free Electives	3	3	0	II, IIIA	6
	6	6	0	I	12
TOTALS: (Minimum-Maximum)	30-33	30-33	29-35		90-100

This curriculum represents the first move toward comprehensive education.

CURRICULUM - GRADE FIVE

Vietnamese

In this first grade, the child will learn proper methods of conversation. He will be trained to observe shapes, colors, sizes and positions and learn to make comparisons and judgements. Vocabulary study, which begins in the 2nd semester, will focus on the school buildings, furniture, class activities and games. Also, vocabulary study will examine titles and honorifics used in the family hierarchy.

Reading: Children will be taught the alphabet, words and short sentences. Short paragraphs, related to the vocabulary lessons, will be added in Semester II. Moral maxims and proverbs will be memorized. Further, children will be asked to repeat model sentences to improve their accents and pronunciation.

Dictation: The pupils will learn to write what they have learned and the numbers from 1-10 (arabic numbers). They will begin to write to dictations of short sentences.

Composition: No prescribed program.

Moral Education

During grades 5, 4, and 3, moral education will concentrate on practice. While there are no scheduled lessons, the teacher will tell stories, illustrating the following virtues:

1. Duty toward oneself
2. Duty toward grandparents, parents and siblings.
3. Duty at school (toward teachers and friends).
4. Duty toward others (politeness, proper modes of address, etc.).

Civic Education

As in moral education, there are no lessons, but teachers will explain and have children practice:

1. traffic regulations
2. respect for property (private and public)
3. classroom behavior
4. hygiene at school
5. attitude toward the flag

Science

This subject will be taught on field-trips and through classroom observations. Concepts: left, right, time, day, week, month, seasons, sky, cardinal points.

Hygiene will be taught through practice: washing of hands, teeth, sitting correctly, how to eat and drink, learning to keep the school clean.

Arithmetic	Numbers from 0 to 100, counting, reading and writing to 100. Learning to add and subtract. Counting by 2, 5, and 10. Checking addition and subtraction. Carrying numbers, drawing straight, broken and curved lines; using money and introduction to the metric system.
Drawing	Sketching in chalk, pencil and colored pencils from a model.
Handicrafts (boys only)	Arranging pieces of cardboard into shapes (houses, animals, flowers, etc.). Folding and cutting paper into shapes. Covering books, picking and pressing flowers, cleaning tables anc chairs.
Activities	Songs and dances, tying knots, active games. Field trips and nature walks, exploring the neighborhood.
Physical Education	Walking, running, singing, dancing, mimicry, throwing balls, movement, breathing exercises.

CURRICULUM - GRADE FOUR

Vietnamese: Vocabulary	The students learn lexical items concerned with people at school: principal, teachers, classmates. Vocabulary of games and sport; duties of children at school. They also learn the names of the parts of the body. Different kinds of food and table service; names of different components of western clothing. The honorifics and modes of address of aunts and uncles. Different kinds of houses and furniture. Finally, the vocabulary study extends to the names of domestic animals.
Reading	Reading texts and lessons learned by heart will include short, practical prose and verse pieces that are relevatn to the study of morals. Also, the National Anthem and folk poetry will be studied. Particular attention will be paid to pronunciation and intonation.
Dictation	Short selections from the reading texts. Emphasis will be put on punctuation.
Penmanship	Medium-sized script will be taught.
Composition	The composition is keyed to the vocabulary lessons, in four stages: a) the student will complete a sentence with a vocabulary word

- b) answering questions on subjects taught that week
- c) making sentences with assigned words
- d) answering questions on an essay subject

Moral Education There is no time specifically reserved for moral education, but discussion will be held on these subjects: (After the discussions, the pupils will copy a moral epigram into their notebooks.)

- a) The pupil's duty toward himself:
    - 1) doing physical education and making an effort
    - 2) learning about virtue
    - 3) contrition for one's mistakes
    - 4) economy
    - 5) modesty
- b) Pupil's duty at home:
    - 1) review of Grade 5 lessons
    - 2) maintaining a good reputation
    - 3) duty toward relatives
- c) Pupil's duty in school:
    - 1) review of Grade 5 lessons
    - 2) friendship
- d) Pupil's duty toward others
    - 1) politeness
    - 2) frankness
    - 3) love of others and spirit of helpfulness

Civics: No lessons are scheduled, but discussions will cover:

- a) practicing traffic regulations
- b) socio-political organization on the local level
- c) respect for authorities
- d) historical anecdotes of a patriotic nature
- e) duties of the citizen -- respect for public and private property

History Visits to historical sites in the area; stories of famous people native to the region; famous characters from Vietnamese history.

Geography	The terms of geography: mountain, valley, river, seashore, hill, field. Practice finding the cardinal points (East, North, South, West).
General Science	The external organs, bones, skin, flesh. Common plants and animals. Soil and rocks. Air, wind and storms. Personal Hygiene as in Grade 5.
Arithmetic	Adding and subtracting to 1,000. Multiplication with 2, 3, 4, and 5. A half, a third, a quarter. Two figure multiplicands, with unit multipliers. Start learning to work problems mentally. Learning about meters, kilograms and liters. Practice in estimate measuring. Weighing with a balance scale and estimating weight by volume. Definition of a line, a point. Angles: right, acute, obtuse. Definition of a square and a rectangle.
Drawing	Drawing the geometric forms learned above. Also, drawing from models and free sketching.
Handicrafts	Cutting paper and cardboard along a line. Making paper toys; binding notebooks, labeling; pressing flowers, making utensils: brooms, chop sticks, lanterns, pen holders, etc. Girls will begin to study needlework: hemstitch, back stitch, overcast, chain stitching, and cross-stitching. Also, they will begin to learn food preparation and serving tea and arranging flowers.
Activities	Dances, songs, knot-tying, how to lay a fire, lively games.
Physical Education	Same as Grade 5.

CURRICULUM - GRADE THREE

Vietnamese: Vocabulary	Children will learn the days, weeks, months and years. Also, the names of the internal organs and diseases. Vocabulary items dealing with food and the culinary arts. Different parts of garments, as well as lexical items concerning European clothing will be studies. Different words describing house and building construction will be introduced. Words dealing with the following human relationships will be taught: the household, ancestors, paternal and maternal relatives, cousins, half-brothers and sisters, and orphans. Names of birds, fish, wild animals, forest, and mountains, as well as

technical hunting and fishing terms will also be studied.

Reading Reading texts and lessons to be learned by heart will be short poems and prose pieces relevant to the Moral Education and Vocabulary classes.

Dictation Five or six-line passages drawn from the readings texts. Particular attention should be paid to letter formation and punctuation. Although grammar is not regularly taught at this stage, the differences between the low-rising and high-rising broken tones will be stressed.

Composition The pupils will write sentences with the verb "to be" and the words "then", "that" and "because". They will answer questions on subjects learned in reading classes and write descriptions of trees, animals and simple landscapes.

Moral Education As in Grades 5 and 4, there are no regularly scheduled classes in Moral Education, but discussions will be held covering the following topics:

1) filial piety
2) duty to parents when children are young
3) duty to parents when children are adults
4) duty to parents when parents are old and weak
5) duty toward teachers, schoolmates, at school and outside the school
6) keeping one's promises; sincerity
7) relationship with relatives and neighbors

Civics There are regular lessons and discussions centered around: traffic regulations, government administration, good manners, proper dress, behavior in public, duties of the citizen (paying taxes, military service, obeying the law) and patriotism.

History In addition to visiting local historical sites, the children will hear stories of heroes of Vitenam from ancient times to modern. The children should be taught the relationship between different historical events and modern times.

Geography In this class, the pupils will study the heavenly bodies, the poles, and hemispheres, and continents, oceans, tides, seasons and the lunar and solar calendars. They will study social organizations from the class to the school, village, town, district, province, neighboring provinces and Vietnam.

Science

Areas studied will include: water, vapor, clouds and rain. The principle organs of the body, the senses, the circulatory, digestive, respiratory and excretory systems. The pupils will observe different types of animals: dogs, cats, oxen, rabbits, ducks, lizards, frogs, etc. Also, some types of metals and minerals: iron, zinc, copper, aluminum, chalk, clay, sand, salt and coal.

In the area of hygiene, preventive medicine and care of the eyes, ears and respiratory, digestive, excretory and circulatory systems will be studied.

Arithmetic

Addition and subtraction with numbers greater than 1,000. Checking of addition and subtraction. The multiplication tables and multiplication with 3-figure numbers. Two-figure division. Adding, subtracting, multiplying and dividing with decimals. Further training in mental calculation. Geometry: square, rectangle, parallelogram and triangle. How to find the perimeter and surface area of above.

Drawing

Lessons will center on pencil drawing from models and realistic reproduction of fruits, leaves, etc.

Handicrafts

Boys: Using cardboard to make boxes, calendars, picture frames and toys. Book-binding. Sweeping and cleaning, taking care of clothes, making brooms, fans, etc.

Girls: Binding books, sweeping and cleaning, pleating and hemstitching: simple, Italian, oblique and straight. Embroidering the 25 letters of the alphabet on canvas, cutting and sewing handkerchiefs, pillowcases and diapers.

Activities

Basically the same as in grade four, with the addition of skits and pantomimes. More knot-tying, plus laying fires, cooking rice, giving basic first-aid.

Physical Education

Breathing games, collective games.

CURRICULUM - GRADE TWO

Vietnamese:

Vocabulary Vocabulary in this class will focus on official government terminology and the terminology appropriate to trades and occupations. Further, communication and transportation vocabulary will be developed. Meteorological vocabulary will also be introduced.

Reading	Modern prose and verse pieces which reflect national and social spirit will be studied. Short verses with moral content will be memorized. Reading should be fluent and natural without meaningless sounds between the words. The tone should match the meaning of the text, its characteristics, and details.
Dictation	Ten-line selections from modern literature relevant to the Moral Education classes. Special attention should be paid to punctuation and diacritical marks.
Grammar	Using the dictation selections, the pupils will study the parts of speech, different articles, the parts of a sentence, the active and passive voices.
Composition	Using phrases such as "only...", "not only...but also...", "and...again...", "each", "one", "some", "many", "all", "less", etc. Also, describing things, letter writing and writing narratives will be studied.
Moral Education	Through discussion and lessons, attention will be paid to the following: economy, foresight, courage and simplicity. Further, the responsibility of elders, the duties of younger brothers and sisters and respect for the family spirit. Pupils will also discuss their relationship to school and teacher. Justice, sincerity and patriotism as well as respect for discipline will serve as the final focuses of this class.
Civics	Practicing the virtues of a citizen of the Republic. Effort, sacrifice, self-confidence, self-reliance, wisdom as essential qualities of the political man. The elementary notions of birth, death and marriage certificates.
History	This course will provide a survey of Vietnamese history from prehistoric time, through the period of Chinese domination, Independence and the Period of Rivalry between the North and the South.
Geography	Physical, political and economic geography of Vietnam. The geography of Cambodia, Laos, Thailand and China in relation to Vietnam. Map drawing.
Science & Health	The following will be emphasized:

A. Parts of the body, the senses, the skeletal, nervous and muscular systems in addition to the circulatory, respiratory and excretory systems.

B. Classification of animals

C. Parts and functioning of trees. Use of fertilizers.

D. Common and precious stones used in construction; common metals: brass, iron, steel, lead, tin, etc.

E. Hygiene:

1. Review of previous study.
2. Caring for food, dangers of alcohol, tobacco and opium, filtering water.
3. Ways of digging wells.
4. Methods of disinfection.
5. Quarantines.
6. Government health regulations.

Arithmetic	Review of four basic procedures; review of decimals and introduction to adding and subtracting fractions. Problems and exercises concerning everyday things. Multiples and submultiples of the metric system. Geometry: rhombus, trapezium, polygon and circles.
Drawing	Measuring a model by eye. Sketching from a model, decorative lines, drawing from memory and mixing water-colors.
Handicrafts	
Boys:	Modeling with clay, sketching, learning to saw, chisel and plane, binding books, planting flowers in pots, making useful objects.
Girls:	Mending, simple sewing, embroidery.
Activities	Reading music, rhythmic dancing, comic plays, first aid, compass orientation and knot-tying.
Physical Education	Swimming, exercise, collective games.
Child Care	
Girls only:	Child care: holding, bathing, dressing and feeding babies. Learning about breast and bottle feeding.

CURRICULUM - GRADE ONE

Vietnamese:	
Vocabulary	Pertaining to sports, games, sightseeing and tourism, culture, science, laboratories, seaports, import-export activities, social aids, philanthropy, race, religion, systems of government, military life, weapons, war and peace.
Reading	Reading of good prose and verse pieces from contemporary sources and excerpts from the Masters. The pupils should begin to recognize different kinds of style and be able to interpret texts.
Dictation	Passages of 15 lines relevant to vocabulary and moral education. Explanation of words and main ideas of the text.
Grammar	Linking several short sentences, writing transitions, beginning grammatical analysis.
Composition	Business letters, memoirs and explanations of adages and proverbs.
Moral Education	Discussion and lectures will stress: value and necessity of manual labor, choosing a profession, honesty, professional conscientiousness, mutual assistance, sacrifice to aid countrymen, kindness and charity, duties to the nation, respect for other cultures.
Civics	Duties of the citizen, observance of the law, love for justice and freedom, love for country and its symbols, rights of the citizen, elections, organization of the government, legislative powers, executive powers, public offices.
History	Survey of Nguyen dynasty, French colonial period and Independence Period.
Geography	Geography of Vietnam, India, the Philippines, Indonesia, Burma, Japan. The location of the continents (emphasizing powerful allies of Vietnam) and map-drawing.
Science	Gravity and weight, ignition, air pressure, pumps, barometers, magnets, electricity. Hygiene: parasites and bacteria, common illnesses, contagious illnesses.

Arithmetic	Fractions, percentage, proportion, volume, density, prisms, cylinders.
Drawing	Measuring a model by eye, perspective, mixing colors, sketching, drawing in proportion.
Handicrafts	Polishing furniture, making furniture, toys, etc.
Physical Education	Same as Grade Two.

APPENDIX C

Indochinese Refugee Education Guides

#2

INTERMEDIATE/SECONDARY EDUCATION SERIES: Detailed Content of the Vietnamese Secondary Curriculum

In a former Bulletin, we tried to give some general information on Curricula in Việt-Nam (see Indochinese Refugee Education Guides, General Information Series #3: Education in Việt-Nam: Fundamental Principles and Curricular). The purpose of this material was to give school administrators a quick guide for early student placement in September 1975. We have now developed a new detailed guide focusing on secondary curriculum, which includes all concepts and experiences with which the Ministry of Education of the Republic of Việt-Nam would like to have equipped high school graduates.

Before studying the content of the curriculum, one should be aware of the nature of the Vietnamese high school. There were three main kinds of high schools in Việt-Nam: vocational, comprehensive, and regular. This guide is only concerned with regular high schools.

The aim of the regular high school was to provide students with experiences wide enough so that they could attend universities in many fields. Students went to high school for seven years, starting with grade 6. The seven-year period was divided into 2 cycles: the first cycle includes four years (grades 6, 7, 8, 9); the second cycle included three years (grades 10, 11, 12). In the second cycle, students could choose one of four sections: Section A: experimental sciences; Section B: mathematics; Section C: modern literature; and Section D: classical literature. Students graduating from Sections A and B could attend teachers' training colleges (Đai Học Sử Phạm), medical schools, dental schools, pharmacy schools, nursing schools, science universities (Đại Học Khoa Học), and technical-vocational universities. Those who majored in modern literature (Section C) preferred to attend teachers' training colleges, liberal arts colleges (Đai Học Vǎn Khoa), law schools, business schools, etc. The classical literature graduates (Section D) attended liberal arts colleges.

Students of the same section and grade studied in the same classroom throughout the year. Teachers moved from one classroom to another, carrying with them whatever teaching aids they needed. Each week, students took from

25 to 28 hours of classwork. Teaching methods centered mainly around lectures and memorization, question-answer sessions, and homework. Some lab work, panel discussions, and field trips were conducted in the larger city schools, however most Vietnamese high school students did not have the opportunity to do "experimental learning" such as lab work.

The impact of war was tremendous on the whole educational system, especially on the high school level. Good teachers were drafted into the armed forces. After military training, some were allowed to return to teach in their former schools, but remained as armed forces reserves. Many families moved to big cities to avoid war consequences, so there was a shortage of classrooms. Some elementary schools ran three shifts for sometime (7:30-11:00 a.m., 11:00 a.m.-2:00 p.m., 2:00 p.m.-6:00 p.m.), but most high schools had only two shifts--7:30 a.m.-12:30 p.m. and 1:00 p.m.-6:00 p.m. There were five sessions a day, six days a week; one textbook for each subject was used in each grade. Textbooks were published by the Ministry of Education and by private publishing companies. Libraries were not available in most schools.

Private schools had the same curricula. The students of both systems had to pass the Second Baccalaureat test given by the Ministry of Education at the end of the 12th year before they could go on to universities.

Most of the tests were subjective. Students had to write an essay-type answer on all subjects being asked or tested. In 1974, the first objective Second Baccalaureat Exam was given, and it met with much criticism from both parents and press because there was doubt about its objective validity.

Moral and civic education was emphasized. A good student--beside having good grades in all subjects or most of the major ones, was also morally good. He knew his duties toward his family, his friends, his teachers, and his country. This meant that he respected and took his parents' advice, was loving and helpful to his brothers and sisters, was considerate of his friends, respected his teachers, and practiced his citizen duties.

These are the basic characteristics of the Vietnamese regular high school curriculum and system. Bearing these characteristics in mind, teachers and administrators can use this guide in placing Vietnamese high school students. Knowing the exact content of the subjects that students took in Viet-Nam will help in formulating the new concepts and skills that the refugee students will need to acquire.

First Cycle

6th Grade

Subjects	Number of Hours Per Week
Vietnamese	6
History	1-½
Geography	1-½
Civic Education	1
Foreign Languages	6
Physics	1
Chemistry	1
Mathematics	3
Natural Sciences	1
Physical Education	3
Drawing, Handicraft, Home Econmics, Music	3
Total	28 hours

VIETNAMESE (6 hrs a wk)

A. LITERATURE. 1. Prose (2 hrs a wk): Texts to be selected from works of comtemporary writers to match the essay program (see below). 2. Poetry: Excerpts from proverbs, folk songs--Nhị Thập Tứ Hiếu; Folk Tales: Excerpts from Truyện Cổ Tích by Nguyễn Văn Ngọc and Nam Hải Dị Nhân, Hưng Đạo Vương by Phan Kế Bính (1 hr a wk). B. DICTATION AND GRAMMAR (1 hr a wk). 1. Dictation: Select descriptive excerpts. 2. Grammar: Sound, tone, syllable; noun, article, demonstrative article, pronoun, verb, adjective; analysis of word classification; punctuation. C. ASSIGNMENTS. 1. Oral Presentation: Ask students to read a book, write a summary, and present it orally to the class (time can be taken from literature lesson--½ hr each wk--for oral presentation). 2. Essay Writing (1 hr a wk): Description (concrete topics); narration (common events); letter writing (concerning visits, common relationships). [All topics should be practical and emphasize description.]

D. SINO-VIETNAMESE. 1. Demotic Script: Strokes, letter forms, factors influencing the letter forms, length of letters, number and relative place of strokes. [Being with letters having a few strokes then move to the ones with many.] 2. Use: Expressions, idioms, historical references having known words. 3. Short, Essay Sentences and Texts: Excerpts from Tân Quốc Văn Giáo Khoa Thư; Ấu Học Hán Tự Tân Thư; Minh Tâm Bửu Giám; Ấu Học Quỳnh Lâm; Cổ Kim Cách Ngôn Đại Toàn; Thành Ngữ Cổ Sự; Việt Sử Tổng Vịnh; Ấu Học Ngũ Ngôn Thi; Minh Đạo Gia Huấn; Nhi Đồng Tác Văn Sơ Bộ; Mông Học Tạo Cú Thật Tại Dị; Quốc Văn Tinh Hoa; Luận Thuyết Khải Ngộ Tập Sơ Biên; Sơ Học Luận Thuyết Khải Mông; Sơ Học Tân Văn Phạm; Sơ Học Tác Văn Tiếp Quyết; Sơ Học Tác Văn Tân Pháp; Sơ Học Văn Pháp Tất Độc. [Tell stories related to the texts.] 4. Handwriting: Students should count the strokes and write them properly.

HISTORY (1-½ hrs a wk)

A. ELEMENTARY NOTIONS OF HISTORY. 1. Definition: Historical documents, historical time (landmark of time, units, historical eras). 2. Historical Periods: Premedieval and prehistoric. 3. Main Civilizations: Mankind during antiquity, etc. B. VIETNAMESE HISTORY (from the beginning to Ngô Quyền). 1. Origins of the Vietnamese People and Civilization: Old theories, Hồng Bàng family, King Hùng Vương founded the nation [Theories related to Vietnamese activities during this time.]; the archaeologic works, Hòa Bình civilization, Bắc Sơn, Đông Sơn civilization; hypotheses explaining the Vietnamese origin; Lạc Việt's civilization. 2. Thục Dynasty; Triệu Dynasty.
3. Chinese Domination: Chinese domination policy; wars against Lâm Ấp and Nam Chiếu during the Chinese domination; revolutions for independence.
4. Consequences of the Chinese Domination: Import of Chinese culture into Vietnamese society during the domination; changes in Vietnamese civilization.

GEOGRAPHY (1-½ hrs a wk)

A. PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY. General Study of the Earth: The Earth in space; shape of the Earth; longitudes, latitudes, the Tropics, North and South Poles; movement of the Earth and its consequences (day, night, time, seasons, directions); maps. B. TERRAIN. 1. Mountains: New mountains--folded terrain; old mountains--rock foundation. 2. Highlands: Structure; types of highlands. 3. Deltas: Structure; types. C. WEATHER. 1. Factors: Temperature; wind; rain. 2. Types: Equatorial; tropical; temperature; cold. D. HYDROLOGY. Water Bodies: Rivers, ponds, lakes; ocean (sea water, tides). E. VEGETATION AND ANIMALS. Human Geography: Population and distribution; racial groups; forms of dwelling (in the city, in the country).

CIVIC EDUCATION (1 hr a wk)

A. HUMANISM. 1. Economizing money and material things. 2. Kind treatment to animals. 3. Duty toward oneself, one's body, feeling, intellect; develop one's personality and emphasize self-respect. B. FAMILY LIFE. 1. Ancestors, parents, brothers and sisters, relatives, helpers. 2. Gratitude to the ancestors; the family situation; piety, mutual affection among family members. C. TRAFFIC REGULATIONS. 1. Important regulations when using public roads. 2. Common traffic signs.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES (6 hrs a wk)

A. ENGLISH. 1. Vocabulary, Conversation, Reading: Units 1,2,3 of Book I, English for Today. 2. Grammar: Important grammatical rules in all English classes. [Apply inductive method by using examples leading to the rules.] 3. Assignments: Ask students to create short sentences similar to sample sentences being learned. B. FRENCH. 1. Vocabulary, Conversation, Reading: Recitation, grammar, dictation, written assignments from Le Français Élémentaire by Mauger and Gougenleim, Book I, Lessons 1-28; Cours de Langue de Civilisation Francaise by Mauger, Book I, Lessons 1-14.

PHYSICS (1 hr a wk)

A. WEIGHT. 1. The weight of an object. 2. Vertical line: Application; hanging bob; balancing ruler. 3. Measurement of Weight: Measuring elasticity of a spring; unit--force kilogram; application. 4. Center Weight of a Lamina: Application; equilibrium of an object under gravitational force. (Equilibrium of an object rotating about a horizontal axis or lying on a horizontal surface.) B. FORCE. 1. Direction and Magnitude: Units: force kilogram and Newton. 2. Addition of two vectors of the same or reverse direction. 3. Bearing of types 1, 2, and 3. 4. Balance: Normal and local; measurement of weights by balance; single balancing. 5. Definitions: Specific weights--solids, and liquids.

CHEMISTRY (1 hr a wk)

A. WATER. 1. Natural and Pure Water: Filtration; distillation and condensation; conclude that natural water is a mixture. 2. Properties of Pure Water: Transition of states of pure water; vaporization, liquefaction, and solidification; conclude that melting and boiling temperatures of pure water are invariable during the transitional period. 3. Water Solubility: Demonstrative example of water as a solvent; demonstrative example of water needed for a chemical reaction. 4. Composition of Water: Electrolysis of water to yield hydrogen and oxygen; synthesis of water from hydrogen and oxygen; conclude that pure water is a compound; hydrogen and oxygen are elements. B. OXYGEN. Main Properties: Oxidization; strong oxidization--combustion; slow oxidization--rusting, respiration; conclude that oxidization produces compounds. C. HYDROGEN. Main Properties: Light; burning. D. AIR. Composition; conclude that air is a mixture. E. CONCLUSION. Based on the above lessons, illustrate simple difference between mixture and purity, element and compound.

MATHEMATICS (3 hrs a wk)

A. ARITHMETIC AND ANALYSIS. 1. Dividing an Integer by 2, 5, 9 or 3: Condition for divisibility; test of divisibility by multiples of 9. 2. Fraction of a Quantity: Basic concepts of a fraction; equality of fractions; demonstrations of operations on fractions by numerical examples; decimal fractions. 3. Decimal Numbers: Operations on decimal numbers; quotients of 2 integers or 2 decimal numbers whose difference is a 10th, a 100th, etc. 4. Representation of Numbers by Letters: Explanation of addition, subtraction and multiplication by concrete examples; factorization. 5. A Simple

Problem: Solve the 1st degree equation with one unknown (all given coefficients are either fractional or decimal); selection of consistent units; use of letters to represent unknowns; formulation of the equation; rearrangement of terms; simplification; solving the equation. B. GEOMETRY. 1. Lines: Half lines, line segments; measurement of line segments. 2. Planes Configuration: Circle; arc; angle; right angle; measurement of angles by degrees; angles formed by 2 lines; perpendicularity of lines. 3. Equality of Triangles (the first two cases): Right triangles; Isoceles triangles; bisector of a segment; reflection in a line. 4. Equality of Triangles (the third case): Equality of right triangles (all cases). C. ENGINEERING DRAWING. Basic techniques using rulers, compass, triangle, and protractor.

NATURAL SCIENCES (1 hr a wk)

A. CONCEPT OF ECOLOGICAL NICHE. Generalities: Plants and animals, brief study of living conditions and influence of media. B. BOTANY (6 hrs). Class Angiospermae Only: a. Subclass Dicotyledoneae--common bean plant; description of the common bean plant--leaf, stem, root, flower, fruit, seed; seeding and germination; summary of characteristics of a bean plant. b. Subclass Monocotyledoneae--rice plant; description of the rice plant--leaf, stem, root, ear of grain, grain; seeding and germination; summary of characteristics of a rice plant; kinds of rice; rice crops. C. ZOOLOGY (17 hrs). Vertebrates Only (General morphology; head, bones, and teeth; living habits; resproduction): Class Osteichthyes--fish; Class Amphibia--a frog or a toad (one of the two); Class Reptilia--a snake; Class Aves--a chicken or a pigeon (one of the two); Class Mammalia--Order Insectivora: a bat, Order Rodendia: a rat, Order Carnivora: a cat or a dog (one of the two), Order Primates: a monkey. A. EXPERIMENTATION. 1. Bean and Rice Plants: Students are divided into groups; they sow the rice and beans every 7 days and 14 days in order to have plants of different sizes; they bring to the classroom beans, rice and bean and rice plants that they grew at home. 2. Animals: The teacher and the students collect pictures of animals being studied. 3. Homework: The students draw plants and animals.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION (3 hrs a wk)

DIRECTED GYMNASTICS. Each session 3 types, each type not more than 2 movements. Exercises requiring perseverance, toughness, and endurance. High jumping, long jumping, discus throwing, 60-m racing. Games involving breathing, jumping, running, throwing. Singing, tying knots, communications (Morse Code), trail markings.

DRAWING

SUMMARY. Drawing geometric figures, real objects at sight; drawing according to a scale. Perspective of cubes. Drawing from memory--animals. Free drawing--objects at sight.

HANDICRAFTS (1 hr a wk)

FOR BOYS. Paper folding. Use bamboo to make lanterns. Paper weaving of birds, animals. Make toys out of cardboard. Bamboo weaving. Book binding.

MUSIC (1 hr a wk) (Summary)

A. VOICE. Breathing; singing by ABCD; music scales. B. MUSIC THEORY. Distinction between a sound and a noise; melody, rhythm, harmony; characteristics of sound; music notes, keys, measure; signs of flats and sharps. C. SINGING. The Vietnamese National anthem; some popular Vietnamese and foreign songs. D. MUSIC HISTORY . History of music; research; musical instruments from China, Greece, India, and Egypt; Chinese and Indian music; Middle Ages. E. LISTENING TO MUSIC. Mythological; Middle Ages; Vietnamese folk songs; descriptive music.

HOME ECONOMICS (1 hr a wk) (For Girls)

A. SEWING. 1. Easy Sewing: Stiches; application. 2. Mending: one, two and four corners. 3. Darning: Long, square, and round edges. 4. Knitting:

Stiches. B. HOME CARE. 1. Purpose of Home Economics. 2. Responsibilities and virtues of women in the family. 3. Eating: Daily eating, daily quantity, menus; ways of cooking--roast, stew, fry, brine; milk--preparation, use, sterilization, conservation; eggs--choice, use, and conservation; fat and oil--property and use; dried and fresh fruits--how to cook and conserve them; Cereals, flour; seafoods (treatment for poisoning); meat--conservation; canned foods; drinks--wine and liquer, fruit juice; diet--diet for people recovering from illness.

First Cycle

7th Grade

Subjects	Number of Hours Per Week
Vietnamese	6
History	1-½
Geography	1-½
Civic Education	1
Foreign Languages	6
Physics	1
Chemistry	1
Mathematics	3
Natural Sciences	1-¼
Physical Education	3
Drawing, Handicraft, Home Economics, Music	3
Total	28-½ hours

VIETNAMESE (6 hrs a wk)

A. LITERATURE. 1. Prose (2 hr a wk): Selections of contemporary writers, especially narration; mixed forms (deseription and narration). 2. Poetry: Study excerpts from Bích Cẩu Kỹ Ngộ; Bā Huyện Thanh Quan, Folk Tales: Writings by Trưởng Vĩnh Ký; Huỷnh Tịnh Của (1 hr a wk). 3. Poetry Forms: Lục Bát (six and eight words) and its variations. B. DICTATION AND GRAMMAR (1 hr a wk): [Vocabulary is taught in the text study and in the Sino-Vietnamese lessons.] 1. Dictation: Select narrative excerpts. 2. Grammar: Adverb; preposition; conjunction; exclamation. 3. Sentence: Analysing a sentence (to help students learn how to build sentences). 4. Phrases. 5. Word Construction and Transformation. C. ASSIGNMENTS. 1. Oral Presentation: Guide students to read books, write summaries and present them orally to the class (time can be taken from literature lesson--¼ hr each day--for oral presentation). 2. *Essay Writing* (1 hr a wk): Description (total and complicated); narration (topics requiring imagination, memory, organization techniques); letter writing (harder topics than those in 6th grade, emphasize narration). D. SINO-VIETNAMESE: Same as in 6th grade.

HISTORY (1-½ hrs a wk)

VIETNAMESE HISTORY (from Ngô Dynasty to the end of Minh's domination). The Ngô Dynasty; the Đinh Dynasty; the Anterior Lê Dynasty; the Lý Dynasty--brief higtory of the dynasty, administration, foreign affairs, war against the Tống, the first steps of the advance toward the South, Vietnamese civilization during the Lý Dynasty; the Trần Dynasty--brief history of the dynasty, administration, foreign affairs, war against the Mongolians, advance toward the South, Vietnamese civilization during the Trần Dynasty; the Hồ Dynasty--brief history of the dynasty; administration and reforms of the Hồ Dynasty; Minh's domination--governing policy of Minh and its consequences; the revolts under the Posterior Trần Dynasty; revolution of Lê Lợi.

GEOGRAPHY (1-½ hrs a wk)

A. EUROPE. 1. *Western Europe*: West Germany; France; England. 2. *Mediterranean Area*: Italy; Spain. 3. *Northern Europe*: Sweden. 4. *Eastern Europe*: Poland; the USSR. B. AFRICA. 1. *North Africa*: Algeria; Saudi Arabia. 2. *Central Africa*: Congo. 3. *South Africa*: Federation of Southern states. A. AMERICAS. 1. *North America*: the U.S.A. 2. *Central America*: Mexico. 3. *South America*: Brazil; Argentina.

CIVIC EDUCATION (1 hr a wk)

LIFE AT SCHOOL. 1. *Organization of the School*: Administrative staff, personnel, and teaching staff; school building, school property; school regulations and disciplinary committee; student body; parents' association. 2. *Duties of the Students*: Duties toward the administrative staff; duties toward the teacher (respect, obedience, gratitude); behavior toward friends (competition, group spirit, modesty, mutual respect); school discipline (industry, discipline observance, school honor, taking good care of school properties); student's deportment (clothes, way of speaking, individual honor and worth).

FOREIGN LANGUAGES (6 hrs a wk)

A. ENGLISH. 1. Vocabulary, Conversation, Reading: Review vocabulary learned in 6th grade; study units 4, 5 of Book I and units 1, 2 of Book II. 2. Grammar: Same as 6th grade. 3. Exercises. 4. Textbook: English for Today, Books I and II. B. FRENCH. 1. Vocabulary, Conversation, Reading: Recitation, grammar, dictation, written assignments from Le Francaise Élémentaire by Mauger and Gougenheim, Book I, Lessons 29-38; Book II, Lessons 1-16; Cours de Langue Civilisation Francaise, Book I, Lessons 36-49.

PHYSICS (1 hr a wk)

HYDROSTATICS. 1. Distinction between a liquid and a gas. 2. Definition of pressure, unit: force kilogram/cm^2, N/m^2. 3. Qualitative experiments on pressure in water. 4. Variation of pressure at different depths and specific weights of a liquid: statement the basic first law of hydrostatics. 5. Application: A still open surface of a liquid, connecting tube (containing one liquid), spray, fountain. 6. Presure of a liquid at the bottom of a container. 7. Archimedes' thrust; its application to determine the specific weight of solids and liquids. 8. Floating objects; principle; hydrometer. 9. Air pressure; Toricelli's experiment; atmosphere. 10. Mercury barometer and metal barometer. 11. Open manometer and metalic manometer. 12. Archimedes' thrust in a gas balloon.

CHEMISTRY (1 hr a wk)

A. GENERAL IDEAS ON CHEMICAL TERMINOLOGY. 1. Use the example of analysis and synthesis of water to help the students have some idea about molecules and atoms. 2. General Ideas: Chemical symbols and formulas; multiple atoms; atomic weight; gram-atomic weight; multiple molecules; molecular weight; gram-molecular weight. B. CHEMICAL CHANGES. 1. Chemical Changes and Laws: Some examples of chemical changes--burning of hydrogen, iron rust; make a distinction of chemical changes and physical changes using simple examples; Lavoisier's experiment; laws of chemical changes deduced from this experiment. 2. Equations of Chemical Reactions: Simple examples about chemical reaction equation; list of valence of some common elements and radicals; application. C. ACIDS AND BASES. 1. Main Properties: Chloric acid; Sulfuric acid; Nitric acid; Sodium hydroxide; Ammoniac. 2. Summary: General ideas about acids and bases.

MATHEMATICS (3 hrs a wk)

A. ARITHMETIC. 1. Practice in factorization of an interger into prime numbers, using simple examples; the largest common divisors and least common multipliers; find the largest common submultiples and smallest common multiples. 2. Application to operations on fractions. B. CALCULUS. 1. Algebraic value (negative, positive, or zero); use concrete problems to present algebraic operations. 2. Inequalities. 3. Linear equations of one unknown with numerical coefficients; problems leading to a linear equation with numerical coefficients. C. GEOMETRY. 1. Review of congruent triangles. 2. Parallelism of lines; angles made by two parallel lines and a secant; angles having parallel sides. 3. Method of Drawing Two Parallel Lines: Definition of polygons--tetragon, trapezoid, paralellogram, rectangle, rhombus, square; characteristics of a parallelogram, a rectangle, a right triangle, a rhombus, and a square--draw these figures; sum of angles of a triangle, a salient tetragon; compare the lengths of a perpendicular line and an oblique line drawn from a point to a line; inequalities in a triangle; cross-ratio of two circles--draw a regular triangle and a right triangle: in a circle, compare the arcs, the chords, the perpendicular distances from the center to the chords--draw the chord and the angles; compare the angle inscribing an arc and the central angle substanding the same arc. Characteristics of the angle of an inscribed tetragon; values of angles of an equilateral polygon--rectangle, octagon, hexagon, triangle--how to draw these figures. D. MATHEMATICAL DRAWING. Line Drawing: Use straight ruler; compass; triangular ruler; decimetric ruler; protractor; copy paper.

NATURAL SCIENCES (1-½ hrs a wk: 1 hr of Lecture; ½ hr of lab)

A. LECTURE (25 hrs). 1. Botany: Emphasis on the life cycles of: Gymnospermus--pine tree, vascular plants; lycopsida--moss; thallophytes--algae, fungi; make a classification by evolution, from the simple types to the more complex; summary. 2. Zoology: Phylum Platyhelminthes--tapeworm; Phylum Nemathelminthes --ascarid; Phylum Mollusca--snail, oyster, squid; Phylum Arthropoda--Class Crustacea, Diplopoda, Arachnida, Insecta; characteristics and metamorphosis of their organs for life adaptation; general conclusion; relationships between different organisms--autotrophic, competitive, parasitic, symbiotic lives. B. LAB WORK (12 hrs) 1. In Class: a. Zoology: Morphology and dissection of ascarid, snail, oyster, squid, shrimp, dragonfly; raise a worm or a silkworm to observe the butterfly's life-cycle. b. Botany: Study the leaves, fruits and seeds of a pine tree; study the algae, mushroom, fungi; show students how to press the leaves and paste in an album all learned plants according to their classification. 2. Field Work: a. In the field: Teacher catches live animals, collects plants, and shows students how organisms live. During rice transplant or harvest seasons, the teacher shows students the work of plowing and raking soil, sowing rice, transplanting, harvesting and threshing; kinds of sweet rice. b. In the highland: Teacher catches bees, butterflies. Shows the students how to grow plants and to fertilize them. c. At the local nurseries of the Department of Agriculture: Teacher shows students how to start a new plant, to graft, to transplant. Students write a report in their notebooks after each field trip.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION (3 hrs a wk)

A. DIRECTED GYMNASTICS. Each session 3 types, each type not more than 3 movements; 200-m relay-racing; high jumping; shot putting; long jumping; basketball, volleyball. B. REVIEW. Singing; communication--Morse Code; tying knots. C. FIELD TRIPS. Camping.

DRAWING

SUMMARY. Same as 6th grade plus drawing real objects at sight--pots and vases;

perspective of sphere; mixing colors; decorative drawing using geometric lines; drawing from memory--birds; free drawing of objects.

HANDICRAFTS (1 hr a wk)

SUMMARY. Learn to use woodworking tools--the plane, the chisel, the saw, the drill, the T-square, Mortising; make small and simple wooden objects; varnish; mixing and painting.

HOME ECONOMICS (1 hr a wk) [For Girls]

A. SEWING. Making buttonholes; hemming collars; decorative stitches; applying stitches in the making of handkerchieves, napkins; knitting socks, caps, sweaters. B. HOME CARE. 1. Clothing: Selecting fabrics; washing, boiling, ironing, mending clothes. 2. Housing: Direction the house is facing (North, South, East, or West); arranging and decorating the rooms. 3. Furniture: Selecting, cleaning. 4. The Kitchen: Dishes. 5. Lighting: Kinds of lamps. 6. Organization of Housework. 7. Garden: Important rules about growing fruits and vegetables. 8. General ideas about raising animals (chickens, ducks, rabbits, pigs). 9. Income: Expenses, family budget. 10. Social Gatherings (visits, parties, receptions): Important occasions in life.

MUSIC (1 hr a wk)

1. Voice: Same as in 6th grade. 2. Music Theory: Review of 6th grade lessons; 6/8 measure; 32nd and 64th notes; rhythm, syncopation, scale, intervals. 3. Application of Singing Techniques: The Vietnamese national anthem; school anthem, songs involving canon technique; Vietnamese and foreign folk songs; foreign classical songs. 4. Music History: Middle Ages; instrumental music--lute, organ, clavichord. 5. Musical Performance: Vietnamese popular and traditional songs; records of songs involving lute, organ; Bach's suites; records of Wagner, Berlioz, Debussy, Faust, Moussorgski, Mendelssohn.

First Cycle

8th Grade

Subjects	Number of Hours Per Week
Vietnamese	6
History	1-½
Geography	1-½
Civic Education	2
Foreign Languages	5
Physics	1-½
Chemistry	1
Mathematics	3-½
Natural Sciences	1-½
Physical Education	3
Drawing, Handicraft, Home Economics, Music	3
Total	28-½ hours

VIETNAMESE (6 hrs a wk)

A. LITERATURE. 1. Prose (2-½ hrs a wk): Excerpts from some subtle and complicated descriptive and narrative forms; argumentative styles of Nguyễn Vản Vĩnh, Nguyễn Bá Học, Phan Kể Bính and excerpts from literary and scientific magazines (Đong Dưởng Tạp Chí, Nam Phong Tạp Chí, Tri Tân, Thanh Nghị, Tao Đàn). 2. Poetry (1-½ hrs a wk): Excerpts from Lê Thánh Tổng, Nguyễn Bỉnh Khiêm, Lục Vẩn Tiền, Nguyễn Khắc Hiếu. 3. Literary Forms: Songs like Lục Bát and its variations; Đưởng Luật poetry. B. EXERCISES. 1. Oral Presentation: Students summarize the work of each author, evaluate it according to style, ideas, psychological and moral aspects by answering leading questions; study the authors' lives and times in which they lived. 2. Essay (1 hr a wk): Narration (how to arrange details and change actions); application, report; moral dissertation (of common topics). C. SINO-VIETNAMESE (1 hr a wk).

HISTORY (1-½ hrs a wk)

A. POSTERIOR LE DYNASTY. King Lê Thái Tổ to the end of Lê Cung Hoàng Dynasty (1428-1527); internal organization; foreign relations with Chiêm Thành, Lão Qua and Bỗn Man; Vietnamese civilization under Posterior Lê. B. MẠC DYNASTY. Brief history; internal and foreign affairs. C. RESTORATION OF THE LE DYNASTY. Lê Dynasty's restoration; dispute between Trịnh and Nguyễn families; advance toward the South by the Nguyễn lords; contacts with Western countries; Vietnamese civilization under the reigns of Trịnh and Nguyễn--society in the North; society in the South. D. DYNASTY OF TÂY SÓN. The revolution; war against the Thanh's army; administration. E. NGUYỄN'S DYNASTY. Restoration of Nguyễn's family; dynasty of Nguyễn, from King Gia Long to King Tự Đức--brief history of the dynasty, administration, diplomatic relations with the neighboring countries and with Western countries; the French invasion--the Treaty of 1862: the loss of three Eastern provinces of South Việt-Nam, the loss of three Western provinces of South Việt-Nam, the first French attack on North Việt-Nam--Treaty of 1874, the second French attack on North Việt-Nam--Treaties of 1883 and 1884; Vietnamese civilization in the 19th century.

GEOGRAPHY (1-½ hrs a wk)

A. ASIA. 1. East Asia: China, Japan, Korea. 2. Southeast Asia: Indonesia, Thailand, Malaysia, Cambodia, Laos. 3. South Asia: India. 4. West Asia: Turkey, Saudi Arabia. B. OCEANIA. 1. Australia and New Zealand. 2. Melanesia and Polynesia.

CIVIC EDUCATION (1 hr a wk)

A. LIFE IN SOCIETY. 1. Mankind. 2. Relationship between the individual and society. 3. Activities and work of the past, present, and future generations. 4. Race, language, habits, customs. 5. National consciousness and patriotism. B. DUTIES TOWARD SOCIETY. 1. Discipline in society (laws and customs, consciousness of freedom, consciousness of justice. 2. Duty to contribute to the progress of mankind. C. RELIGIOUS LIFE. 1. The major religions. 2. Influence of religion in social life.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES (5 hrs a wk)

A. ENGLISH. 1. Vocabulary, Conversation, Reading, Grammar: Units 3, 4, 5 of Book II and unit 1 of Book III. 2. Exercises: Ask questions based on the reading; guide students to find the main idea and summarize a section of the text; have students do grammar exercises; have them write a short dictation; later use it as a text for study. 3. Textbook: English for Today, Books II and III. B. FRENCH. 1. Vocabulary, Conversation, Reading, Recitation, Grammar: Dictation, written assignments from Le Français Élémentaire by Mauger and Gougenheim, Book II, Lessons 17-38; Cours de Langue de Civilisation Française by Mauger, Book I, Lessons 36-49.

PHYSICS (1-½ hrs a wk)

A. HEAT. 1. Temperature: Qualitative experiment on expansion. 2. Mercury Thermometer: Celsius temperature scale. 3. Heat Unit: Calories; measuring calories by mixed method; heat solids and liquids; evaluation of heat; melting and freezing; melting temperature; change in volume caused by melting and freezing; melting heat; evaporation and boiling; evaporating temperature; evaporation in a vacuum. B. WORK AND POWER. 1. Units: Joule and Watt; 2. Forms of Energy (give examples of heat and mechanical energy only): Convertibility of heat and mechanical energy.

CHEMISTRY (1 hr a wk)

A. PROPERTIES OF NON-METALS AND METALS. 1. Non-metals: Main properties of: sulfur to show that sulfur is not a metal, chlorine to show that chlorine is not a metal, carbon to show that carbon is not a metal, carbon oxides--carbon dioxide and carbon monoxide. 2. Metals: brief study of: physical and mechanical properties of metals and alloys, common metallurgical process (only reactions investigated); main properties of: sodium, zinc, iron--cast iron, steel (only the properties should be emphasized), copper; summary--simple distinction between non-metals and metals.

MATHEMATICS (3-½ hrs a wk)

A. ARITHMETIC AND CALCULUS. 1. Ratio and Proportion: Proportional division; simple interest. 2. Graphs and Equations: Algebraic value of a vector along a directed line; calculus of variations--position determination of a point on an axis; position determination of a point in a plane by orthogonal coordinates; briefly explain about variables and functions, graphs, proportional quantities--equation $y = ax$, proportional quantities with an initial constant difference--equation $y = ax + b$ (a and b are known numbers), graphs; system of two linear equations with two unknowns, solved by analytical and graphical methods, examples of insoluble and indefinite cases. 3. Introduction to Algebraic Operation: Properties of multiplication, power, multiplication and division; binomial, multiplication and division of binomials; addition of binomial; polynomial of one variable, reducing terms of the same degree simplified forms, product of two polynomials, important equalities; simple exercises of polynomials or rational function. B. GEOMETRY. 1. Explanations by Examples: Inverse theorem, necessary and sufficient conditions and properties; properties of a parallelogram, a rectangle, a right triangle, and a rhombus. 2. Some Examples on Loci: The points at equal distance to two fixed points or two fixed straight lines; the points which are apart from a fixed straight line by a given distance.
3. Applications to Drawing Problems: A circle circumscribing a triangle; a circle inscribing a triangle; the tangent to a circle drawn from a given point.
4. Multiplication of a Segment by a Fraction: Ratio of two segment; points dividing a segment according to a given ratio. 5. Formulas: Thales' theorem; similar triangles; formulas in a right triangle; formulas in a circle cut by two lines drawn from one point. 6. Application to the drawing of the multiplicative average segment, the length of which is given as the square root of two given segments; find the sides and medians of a square, equilateral hexagon and an equilateral triangle in terms of the radius of the circumscribing circle.
C. MATHEMATICAL DRAWING. 1. Use of Tools To Draw Geometry Figures: Straight ruler, triangle, compass, decimeteric ruler, protractor, ink pen. 2. Draw a curve going through some given points, using carbon and ruled paper to milimeter scale.

NATURAL SCIENCES (1-½ hrs a wk: 1 hr of lecture; ½ hr of lab)

A. LECTURE (25 hrs). 1. Shape and General Composition of the Earth: General introduction on the shape and appearance of the Earth; emphasis on the role of airplanes and satellites; atmosphere, water, living organisms around the Earth; crust, mantle, and core of the Earth; definition of geology. 2. Activities of the Earth and Its Consequences: Structure of the crust--comparison of soil rock; erosion of the crust by weather, wind, running water, sea waves, ice; deposits (caused by wind, stream, river, sea, ice, living organisms); formation of sedimentary rocks; movement of the crust--folding, stress and strain, metamorphism and metamorphic rocks; formation of volcanoes--lava on the surface, underground; fissures, collapses, and earthquakes. 3. Mineral Treasures: Underground water, characteristics and extraction; soil and rock used in industry--rock, gravel, pebbles, sand, mud, clay, sulfur and phosphate salts; jade and precious stones; metal ores--iron, copper, lead, zinc, aluminum. 4. History of Life: Historical transformation of living beings through the ages--precambrian (unicellular organisms) through cenozoic (multicellular organisms); evolution of plants and animals through the ages; fuel generated by dead organisms--coal, oil, gas.

B. LAB WORK (12 hrs). 1. Class Work(10 to 12 1-hr sessions): a. Soil and rocks--compare samples of soil collected in the area for color, general composition, origin, use; compare soil with rock for hardness, grain, crystallization, natural cement, grinding of rock into soil, use cement to make samples of man-made sand; compare samples of crystallized conglomerate, sandstone, mudstone in regards to form, arrangement, color, composition; compare sandstone with limestone in regards to grain, hardness, composition (use vinegar, observe and explain the effervescense), compare the way they were formed; compare mudstone with mica schist and describe the metamorphism from mudstone to mica schist, conclusion on the metamorphic phenomenon, compare it with bricks and tiles to draw conclusion on artificial transformation, do the same with limestone and marble; compare basalt with mudstone (schist) in regards to layers, hardness, and color, grind both kinds and compare hardness of cement in mudstone and lava rocks; compare volcanic rock with granite--color, grain, structure, deduce their origins. b. Ore--compare common metal ores in Viet-Nam--iron, lead, copper, coal--observe color, hardness, arrangement, find trace of vegetation, its compactness, experiment on the composition of coal. 2. Field Trips: Students are taken to an open field and shown how to detect the direction of the wind, guess the temperature, observe the fog; how to observe the stream, the river or rivulet; deposition and erosion; if near the sea, they observe sand dunes, sea coast, and effect of the sea waves; they also observe an area which has foldings of sedimentary rocks, or an extinct volcano, or a stone mine; if possible, they are taken to observe a brick or ceramic factory, or where the sand pebbles are washed. 3. Collection: Students make an album of geological pictures or photographs; in each field trip, the students learn to collect samples of rocks, pebbles, and soil of that area. [In general during the lab work, the students are taught how to observe, to think and compare, to describe accurately by writing and drawing.]

PHYSICAL EDUCATION (3 hrs a wk)

A. DIRECTED GYMNASTICS. Techniques of high jumping, long jumping, shot putting, 80-m racing; basketball, volleyball, soccer; organize competitive games.

B. REVIEW. Singing; typing knots; communications--Morse syllables; trail markings; games involving running, jumping, throwing, balancing.

DRAWING

SUMMARY. Same as 7th grade plus lettering; water color painting of flowers, fruits, leaves, birds; drawing of scenery in the countryside; learning the methods of drawing the human body, its proportion, measurement.

HANDICRAFTS (1 hr a wk)

METALWORK. Learn to use metalworking tools; how to heat iron, give it a round, square, or rectangular shape, make a pointed end; harden the steel; learn to solder iron objects--tray, kettle, plate, oil container; drill holes in tin, clinch nails.

HOME ECONOMICS (1 hr a wk) [For Girls]

A. SEWING. Embroidery stitches applied to decoration of handkerchieves, bibs, caps; cutting and sewing children's clothes. B. CHILD CARE. Marriage; health care during pregnancy; preparation for the mother; preventing diseases; diet and work of the mother; the newborn baby; breast and bottle feeding; clothing; solid foods; health care; objective of child care. C. HOME CARE (in the countryside): Garbage disposal; gardening; vegetables--selection of seeds, germination, weeding; fruit trees; animals--fowls, bees.

MUSIC (1 hr a wk)

Voice: Same as 7th grade. Music Theory: Review the program of 6th and 7th grades; tonal notes and modal notes; a major and F# minor; E^b major and C minor; measures 2/2, 3/2, 4/2, 3/8, 9/8, 12/8; singing 1, 2, and 3 voice songs; rhythmic reading; musical dictation. Application of Singing Techniques: Memorize the national anthem and the school anthem; Vietnamese and foreign folk songs. Music History: Classical instrumental music, sonata, chamber music, symphony, dramatic music in Italy in 17th century, ballet, opera, Mozart opera. Musical Performance: Musical play of Italy; records--musical plays of Lully, Rameau, operas of Gluck, Mozart's sonatas, works of Handel, Bach, Haydn, Beethoven.

First Cycle

9th Grade

Subjects	Number of Hours Per Week
Vietnamese	6
History	1-½
Geography	1-½
Civic Education	2
Foreign Languages	5
Physics	1-½
Chemistry	1
Mathematics	3-½
Natural Sciences	2
Physical Education	3
Drawing, Handicraft, Home Economics, Music	3
Total	30 hours

VIETNAMESE (6 hrs a wk)

A. LITERATURE. 1. Prose (2 hrs a wk): Argumentative style of Phạm Quỳnh, Trần Trọng Kim, Phan Chu Trinh; excerpts of their writings from magazines. 2. Poetry (1 hr a wk): Study excerpts from Đoạn Trường Tân Thanh, Nguyễn Công Trứ, Nguyễn Khuyến, Trần Tế Xương, Cao Bá Quát, Tôn Thọ Tường, Phan Văn Trị; Poems of the patriots like Phan Bội Châu, Phan Chu Trinh. 3. Literary Form: Hát Nói. 4. Literature: General study of Vietnamese literature from the beginning up to modern times (5 hrs for the whole year). B. EXERCISES. 1. Oral Presentation: Summarize the work of each author, evaluate it in regards to style, ideas, psychological and moral aspects by answering leading questions; study the lives and times in which the authors lived. 2. Essay (2 hrs a wk): General dissertation; moral dissertation; literary. C. SINO-VIETNAMESE (1 hr a wk).

HISTORY (1-½ hrs a wk)

A. VIETNAMESE HISTORY (from 1884 to 1945). 1. The French Domination: Governing policy of the French; reaction of the Vietnamese people in regards to the French domination--movements against the French: Cần Vướng Movement, Duy Tân Movement; movements against the French from 1914 to 1930--anti-French movement during World War I, anti-French movements from 1919 to 1930, revolt of the Vietnamese Kuomingtang, anti-French movement from 1930 to 1939; pro-French movements; changes occurred in Vietnamese civilization under the French domination. 2. Việt-Nam in the Second World War: The Japanese in Indochina; the French-Japanese policy in Việt-Nam; movements against the French and the Japanese; Coup d'Etat in March 9, 1945. B. WORLD HISTORY. 1. Western Expansion: The development of Western industry and the expansion of colonial movement; the Asian countries facing Western countries' colonial expansion movement--China: From Opium War to Tân Hội revolution, Japan: From King Minh Trị to World War I, India: From 1857 to World War I; the First World War: its cause and effect. 2. The World between the Two World Wars: Internal changes of the Western big powers--the U.S., England, France, USSR, Germany, Italy; the countries of the East--Japan, China, India, and countries in the Far East. 3. The Second World War: Cause and effect.

GEOGRAPHY (1-½ hrs a wk)

VIỆT-NAM. 1. General Aspects: Location, boundaries, shape, area. 2. Physical Geography: Terrain--mountains and highlands, delta, sea coast and sea bottom; climate; rivers; vegetation. 3. Human Geography: Ethnic groups in Việt-Nam; population (census, changes, migration, distribution); politics. 4. Economic Geography: Agriculture (farming, husbandry, fishery); arts and crafts, industry; communication, trade.

CIVIC EDUCATION (2 hrs a wk)

PRIVILEGES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE CITIZENS. 1. Human Rights: The International Declaration of Human Rights--causes, content, influence. 2. Civil Rights: Definition of a citizen; basic rights and limitations--freedom of individual rights of safety, privacy, having one's honor respected, movement, lodging; freedom of thought,religion, culture and education, speech, assembly, politics (to join the government, to vote, to be a candidate); economic and social aspects of freedom in regards to right to work (freedom to join labor unions and to have strikes), right to private property, free enterprise, right to social welfare. 3. Citizen's Responsibilities: Duty to defend one's country; duty to defend the country's contitution and laws; duty to fulfill one's military obligations; duty to pay taxes.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES (5 hrs a wk)

A. ENGLISH. 1. Vocabulary, Conversation, Reading, Grammar: English for Today, Book III, Units 1, 2, 3 (the first 15 lessons); encourage students to read simplified versions written in the contemporary style (such as Tales from England, 1st and 2nd degrees, Longmans Series, etc.) [Attention: Ask the students to find the main ideas, to summarize and to answer questions orally related to the lessons.] 2. Exercises: Answer questions related to the reading; ask the students to answer questions orally relating to the main idea and to summarize each paragraph; do grammar exercises; write dictation and study it from English for Today, Book III. B. FRENCH. 1. Vocabulary, Conversation, Recitation, Grammar, Dictation: Text study from Cours de Langue de Civilisation Française by Mauger, Book I, Lessons 50-65, Book II, Lessons 1-20. 2. Written Exercises: Answer questions based on reading and dictation; answer questions related to the same topic; write sentences following the teacher's sample ones.

PHYSICS (1-¼ hrs a wk)

A. ELECTRICITY. Properties of directional current; atomic structure--electrons, nuclei (omit nuclear structure), ions, ionization; chemical effect of a current--qualitative law, application; chemical effect of a current--Faraday's law; heat effect of a current--Joule's law, application: light, stove, iron, fuse; resistance of a pure wire of uniform cross section--change of resistivity with temperature, rheostat and variable resistance; voltage--Ohm's law across a pure resistance; dry battery--Volta and Leclanche; principles of a lead battery. B. OPTICS. Linear propagation of light, application--dark shadow, opaque shadow, solar eclipse, lunar eclipse; light reflection, plane mirrors, statement of Descartes-Snell law, application--periscope, kaleidoscope; experiments on light refraction; converging lens, imaging, Descartes' formula; application--converging lens: camara, floodlight, magnifier.

CHEMISTRY (1 hr a wk)

INTRODUCTION TO ORGANIC CHEMISTRY. 1. Basic concepts of organic compounds--definition, general properties. 2. Hydrocarbons--by-products of petroleum and coal. 3. Study of methane, acetylene, benzene. 4. Alcoholic fermentation--ethanol. 5. Acidic fermentation--acetic acid. 6. Esterization--study of some common esters, usage of ester. 7. Hydrolysis--saponification, application to the making of candles and soap. 8. Introduction to carbohydrates--glucose, saccharin, cellulose, starch.

MATHEMATICS (3-½ hrs a wk)

A. ARITHMETIC AND CALCULUS. 1. Examples: In geometry or physics leading to the following equations: $y = x^2$, $y = ax^2$, $y = \frac{1}{x}$, $y = \frac{a}{x}$ where a is a constant; table of specific values; graph. 2. Definition of Square Root: Finding an approximate decimal value for a square root, using table of square values, direct method. 3. Solve a quadratic equation with one unknown, by analytical method and graphical method; examples leading to quadratic equation with numerical coefficients; use of graphs and tables. B. GEOMETRY. 1. Sine, Consine and Tangent of an Acute Angle: Trigonometric formulas in a right triangle; formulas relating sine and cosine of an angle; use of the sine, cosine, and tangent tables. 2. Area Units and Area: A rectangle, a triangle, a trapezoid, and other polygons; ratio of areas of two similar triangles; length of an arc and area of a circular sector (without making use of the two formulas: $L = 2\pi R$ and $S = 2 \pi R^2$). C. SPACE GEOMETRY. Determination of a plane; introduction to parallel lines and parallel planes; definitions of a bi-hedron, a polyhedral cylinder and a parallelepiped; perpendicular lines and perpendicular planes; right cross-sections of a bi-hedron, and a polyhedral cylinder; formation of rotational rigid bodies (cylinder, sphere, cone); sphere (a brief study is intended to understand its applications to the study of the Earth and other common applications); practice in evaluating area and volume (e.g. parallepiped, polyhedral cylinder, cylinder, cone, sphere); practice in unit conversions. D. MATHEMATICAL DRAWING. Draw by hand, drafts of several simple objects; draw the same drafts using pencil, pen, and other drawing aids according to a given scale; draw simple patterns.

NATURAL SCIENCES (2 hrs a wk: 1 hr lecture and 1 hr lab)

A. LECTURE. 1. Human Anatomy, Physiology and Hygiene: Generalities of animal cells and tissues; coordinative functions; hygiene of each function; motor system (musculo-skeletal)--bones (not the skeleton), muscles (not the names of the muscles); sensory system--cerebro-spinal system: brief study of the neurons, the spine, the brain (draw simple sketches to show direction of neurons in the motor and sensory pathways; the senses--general studies of the senses, especially the skin and the tactile sense; nutritional system--hygiene of each function; food--emphasis on the composition and the nutritional value of all kinds of foods and vitamins, and food's influence on health; digestion; circulation (very brief study on lymph); respiration; excretion (emphasis on mine excretion); diet (emphasis on physiological aspect, the anatomic aspect should be simplified). 2. General Microbiology: Brief study of micro-organisms--viruses, fungi, protista; their shape, structure, and living habits (emphasis on the effects caused by micro-organisms in fermentation, in decay); discuss food conservation by freezing and sterilization; general study of viruses and viral diseases. 3. Contagious Diseases: Research on cholera and tuberculosis; study the effects caused by disease germs; sensitivity and immunity; preventive measures--vaccination treatment--sero- and chemotherapies), (emphasis on the use and danger of antiseptics and antibiotics); some other contagious diseases--smallpox, malaria. B. LAB WORK. 1. Observe: The epithelial cell inside the human cheek, or of a frog; blood cells (erythrocytes and lencocytes); one kind of microbe--weed bacillus. 2. Study the Bone: Transversal and longitudinal sections of a fresh bone. 3. Study the Muscles: A skinned frog; experiment to prove the elasticity and contraction of the frog's leg muscles. 4. Observe a Brain: Pig's or ox's; experiments on frog's reflex movements. 5. Dissect: A mouse to study the digestive and reproductive systems; observe the shape of a pig's heart and dissect the heart.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION (3 hrs a wk)

A. DIRECTED GYMNASTICS. Racing and breathing control; high jumping; long jumping; shot putting; 100-m relay racing; techniques of volleyball, basketball, soccer. B. REVIEW. Singing; tying more complicated knots, communications by whistle; trail markings; finding directions with watch, the sun, the moon, and the Dipper; games.

DRAWING

SUMMARY. Drawing still life (fruits, statues) with pencils, coal, or paint; decorative drawing of household objects; drawing sketches of objects, people, and animals; review perpective; enlarge a small sketch, then paint it.

HANDICRAFTS (1 hr a wk)

SUMMARY. Learn to use tools of a blacksmith; learn to file iron; learn to use electrical tools, to wire a new current, a fuse, a bell, a light bulb; make a joint, solder a joint (the light bulb and the bell will be attached to a piece of wood, not on the wall); put the bicycle parts together, take them apart, repair the bicycle.

HOME ECONOMICS (1 hr a wk) [For Girls]

A. SEWING. Cutting and sewing of Vietnamese blouses and pants, underwear; Vietnamese, Chinese, Japanese embroidering. B. CHILD CARE. Illnesses and caring for the ill; emergency care; family medicine cabinet; baby's common sickness; social welfare institutions--orphanages; agencies to protect mother and child. C. HOME CARE. Family resources; kinds of expenses--saving, family budget; social welfare; social etiquette and family events--marriage, birth, funeral; letters of condolence or compliment.

MUSIC (1 hr a wk)

1. Voice: Same as the 6th, 7th, and 8th grades. 2. Music Theory: Review

the 8th grade program; classical modes; tonality, modality, modulation; transposition; short dictation with alterations; vocal and instrumental canon. 3. Application of Singing Techniques: Vietnamese and foreign folk songs; songs of Weber, Wagner, Moussorgski, Franck, Fauce. 4. Music History: Music of Lied, Schubert,Schumann; piano music of the 19th century; German operas by Weber, Wagner; Russian operas by Moussorgski, Borodine, Rimsky-Korsakow. 5. Music Performance: Piano music (records) by Mendelssohn, Schumann, Liszt, Chopin, Schubert, Brahms, Berlioz, Weber, Wagner, Rossini, Verdi.

Second Cycle

10th Grade: Experimental Science Major (Section A) and Mathematics Major (Section B)

Subjects	EXPERIMENTAL SCIENCE (A) Number of Hours Per Week	MATHEMATICS (B) Number of Hours Per Week
Vietnamese	3	3
History	2	2
Geography	1	1
Civic Education	2	2
Philosophy	0	0
First Foreign Languages	4	4
Second Foreign Languages	4	4
Classical Languages	0	0
Physics	3	3
Chemistry	1-½	1-½
Mathematics	4	6
Natural Sciences	3	1
Physical Education	3	3
Total	30-½ hours	30-½ hours

VIETNAMESE (3 hrs a wk)

A. LITERATURE. 1. Literature: Same as Modern Literature Major but more general; study excerpts of Sino-Vietnamese poems under Hồng Đức's Dynasty, Nguyễn Bỉnh Khiêm, or oration of war deads; excerpts of: Chinh Phụ Ngâm Khúc, Cung Oán Ngâm Khúc, Đoạn Trường Tân Thanh. B. DICTATION AND GRAMMAR. Not applicable to 10th grade. C. EXERCISES. Oral presentation and essays, same as Modern Literature Major.

HISTORY (2 hrs a wk): Same as Modern Literature Major.

GEOGRAPHY (1 hr a wk): Same as Modern Literature Major.

CIVIC EDUCATION (2 hrs a wk): Same as Modern Literature Major.

FIRST FOREIGN LANGUAGES (4 hrs a wk)

A. ENGLISH. Same as Modern Literature Major but more general; emphasize science excerpts and conversation; literature. B. FRENCH. Same as Modern Literature Major, except French literature and essay.

SECOND FOREIGN LANGUAGES (4 hrs a wk)

A. ENGLISH. Same as Modern Literature Major. B. FRENCH. Same as Modern Literature Major; textbook: Cours de Langue de Civilization Française by Mauger, Book I, Lessons 1-35.

PHYSICS (3 hrs a wk)

A. FORCE. 1. Force: Measurement of force by the extension of a spring; units of forces--force kilogram, Newton; experimental study of converging forces, addition and resolving of forces; experimental study of parallel forces, addition and resolving of forces, force couple; movement of a force about an axis (special cases: forces perpendicular to or parralel with the axis). 2. Balance: Characteristics of a balance--reliability, accuracy, sensitivity; balancing by comparisons; precision balances; Roman and Roberval balances. 3. Practical Concepts of weight: Unit--kg; definition of specific weight and specific volume of solids and liquids; unit; definition of liquid specific weight with respect to water. 4. Work: Done by a force of constant direction and magnitude; work done by an applied force or a frictional force; unit--Joule; power; unit--Watt. 5. Simple Engines: Pulley, inclined surface, crane; the law of work conservation; efficiency. B. HYDROSTATICS. 1. Definition of Pressure: Unit--N/m^2; pressure at a point in liquid; difference of pressure between points in a liquid; pressure at a point on the wall or the bottom of a liquid container. 2. Results and Applications: Open surface of the liquid; interface separating two undissolved liquids; connecting tube containing one type of liquid of two undissolved liquids; Pascal theorem; compressor using water. 3. Archimedes' Principle: Applied in determining specific weight; floating objects, aerometer. C. THERMOMETRY. 1. Qualitative experiments on expansion. 2. Temperature: Mercury thermometer; Celsius and Kelvin temperature scale. 3. Expansion of Solids: Coefficients on longitudinal and transverse expansion (definition and formula); application. 4. Expansion of Liquids: Virtual expansion and real expansion; coefficient of virtual expansion and real expansion (definition and formula); expansion of water. Change in specific weight of a liquid with temperature. 5. Isothermal Opression of Gas: Law of Boyle-Mariotte; isobaric expansion of gas; change in pressure with volume being held constant--Charles and Gay Lussac's laws; ideal gas formulas; specific weight of gases. D. CALORIMETRY. 1. Heat: Units--calorie, Joule; specific heat of solids and liquids. 2. Vaporization: In a vacuum, in a gas; boiling; maximum pressure; lateral heat of vaporization.

CHEMISTRY (1-½ hrs a wk)

A. FUNDAMENTAL THEORY. 1. Atomic Structure: Elements; principal particles of atom; Bohr's atom; atomic level; atomic number; isotopes; definition of an element; description of the Mendeleer's periodic table (revised table); molecules; elements; compounds and mixtures. 2. Chemical Bonds: Ionic bond--ionization in a solution; valence bond, shared valence bond, polarization of valence bond; negativity table; Van der Waal bond; interpretation of physical states based on chemical bonds; distinction between metal, non-metal, and metalloid. 3. Acid, Base, and Salt: Definition of acid, base, and salt according to Arrhenius Properties of acids, bases, and salts; law of Berthollet. B. GASES. 1. Oxygen and Oxides. 2. Chlorine and Chlorous Compounds: Hydrogenic chlorides, hypochlorites, chlorates. 3. Sulfur and Its Compounds: Sulfurous dioxide and sulfite; sulfuric acid and sulfate. 4. Nitrogen and Its Compounds: Ammoniac and ammonium; Nitric acid nitrate. C. ANALYTICAL CHEMISTRY. Analysis of acids and bases.

(Applicable from school-year 1970-1971)

1. Basics: Water; hydrogen; oxygen; air; nitrogen; compounds and mixtures; introduction to the atomic theory; nomenclature; atomic weight; molecular weight;

chemical equation; lime; salt; ammoniac; nitric acid; carbon; carbonic anhydride; carbon oxide; silicon; silicate. 2. Statements of the Fundamental Laws in Chemistry: Chlorine; hydrochloric acid; acidic radical; decolorizing chlorides; Javel solvent; sulfur; sulfurous anhydride; sufuric acid; base radical.

MATHEMATICS (6 hrs a wk) [For Mathematics Major (B) only; same for Experimental Science Major (A) except 4 hrs a wk]

A. PLANE GEOMETRY. 1. Lines: Straight line; half line; line segment; half plane; angle; perpendicularing of lines; reflection about a straight line. 2. Figures: Triangle--Isosceles, equal triangles, equal right triangles; inequalities in a triangle; perpendicular and oblique segments drawn form a point to a line; locus of points at an equal distance from two given points or from two given lines; parallelity of lines; proporties; sum of angles of a triangle and of a convex polygon; parallelogram; reflection about a point; equivalent vectors; translation. 3. The Circle Intersection of a Circle and a Line: Tangent; chord and arc; cross ratio of two circles; methods of drawing a line and a circle; angle and chord subtending an arc from the center; angles from the center and from a point on the circle subtending the same arc; inscribable tetragon; locus of points subtending a fixed line segment under a constant angle. 4. Ratio of Two-line Segment: Points dividing a segment by a given ratio; algebraic ratio of two parallel vectors; point dividing a segment by a given algebraic ratio; Thales' theorem; isometric triangles; similarity--similarities of a line, a circle; centers of similarity of two circles; locus of points the distances of which from two given lines form a given ratio. 5. Conjugate Points; Conjugate Pencil: Two segments of a triangle side determined by the bisector of the opposite angle; locus of points the distances of which from two fixed points form a given ratio. 6. Trigonometric Formulas: Sum and difference of squared distances from one point to two others; application to problems relating to locus and drawing; power a point with respect to a circle. 7. Sine, Cosine, and Tangent of a Convex Angle (Acute or Obtuse): Algebraic value of the projection of a vector with respect to an axis; how to use sine, cosine, and tangent tables; formulas involving sides and angles of a right triangle: $a^2 = b^2+c^2-2bc \cos A$ and $\frac{a}{\sin A} = \frac{b}{\sin B} = \frac{c}{\sin C} = 2R$ in a triangle; formulas on the area of a triangle. 8. Equilateral Polygon: Square; octagon;

hexagon; equilateral triangle; circumference of a circle; length of an arc; radian; approximate value of sinx, tanx and cosx (x and $1- \frac{x^2}{a}$) for a small angle x is terms of radians; revision on methods to evaluate plane areas; area of a circle and sector. B. CALCULUS. 1. Algebraic Numbers--Negative, Positive, and Zero: Operation on algebraic numbers; basic properties of these operations; number with positive integral power; significance of negative power and fractional power; ratios and formulas on ratios; binomial and polynomial; reduction of polynomial quotient having common binomial(s); product of a binomial and a polynomial; examples on polynomials. 2. Vector: Algebraic value of a vector; Chasles formula; position of a point determined by its abscissa on an axis or its coordinates in a plane. 3. Dependent and Independent Variables: Increment of a variable; a function defined in a range; functions of the same or reverse variation; variation and graph of first degree functions; tangential angle; variation and graph of functions: $y = x^2$; $y = ax^2$; $y = \frac{1}{x}$; $y = \frac{a}{x}$. 4. Linear Equation and Inequality with One Unknown: Solution and discussion; a system of two linear equations with two unknowns; solution and discussion. 5. Quadratic Equation with One Unknown: The delta (b^2-4ac); existence and determination of roots; relationships between two roots; sum and product of roots; sign of roots; quadratic equation derived from two given roots; determination of two numbers, given their sum and product--discussion; quadratic trinomial; reduction into factors; sign of a trinomial; quadratic inequality; problems involving quadratic equations.

NATURAL SCIENCES (3 hrs a wk, for Experimental Science Major)

A. LECTURE. 1. Introduction to Geology: Definition; specialized field; aim; application; research methods; the Earth in the universe; the new hypothesis of Weizocker. 2. Geological Phenomena: By external causes--air, underground water, turbidity currents, stream, river, sea, snow and glacier; by organisms--corals; by internal causes--volcano, earthquake; events leading to change in Earth's surface; formation of mountains (counter current hypothesis); Earth structure. 3. Mineralogy: Introduction; some basic minerals--quartz, feldspar, mica, calcite, dolomite. 4. Rock Study: Generalities of rocks; igneous rocks--granite and basalt; some other rocks relating to these two; sedimentary--a sample of sandstone, siltstone, limestone, evaporites; metamorphic rocks--metamorphism, a sample of gneiss and of marble. 5. Paleo-Geology: Definition of fossils; main findings of paleontology; basic principles in studying the Earth's strata; how to determine relative and absolute age; history of geology in Viet-Nam; evolution of living organisms; evolution theory; examples of the past--horse and humans. 6. Application of Geology: How to select materials for construction--rocks, pebbles, sand, mud, clay; how to slake lime and manufacture cement; how to make bricks and roofing tile; how to find underground ore--brief description of some methods such as using magnetism, electricity, seism; foundation of roads; hydroelectricity; how to bring up underground water. B. LAB WORK. 1. Geological Phenomena: Sedimentation--use a glass pan, put in sand, mud, clay and observe the speed as well as the order of sedimentation; law of sedimentation--piling up or spreading evenly; dune formation--make a sand-bank on the table, then blow from the low to the high side to see how sand moves; observe the sand of the bank and compare it with the smooth pebble at the river; press horizontally a piece of clay to explain the force which formed mountains; do the experiment with a connecting tube to explain the spurt of water from a well; observe ice--put the cubes next to one another to see them stick together (ogglomeration), break ice to have a sharp piece and scratch a piece of hard clay or a tile to test the hardness; making cement--use pebbles mixed with cement to see them harden, compare with natural cement in red laterite. 2. Mineralogy Study: Observe the color and measure the relative refractive index by putting the rock into solutions such as water, benzen, gasoline, oil; observe the relative hardness by scratching the surface, and measure the specific gravity with a scale; observe the common ores--iron, copper, zinc, and lead; burn some calcite to make quicklime and experiment with acid, draw chemical reactions, blow in lime solution to make a solution of hydroxide calcium. 3. Rock Study: Observe sedimentary rocks--conglomerate, sandstone, shale, siltstone; compare their grains; observe their strata comformation, observe cement; observe limestone and dolomite--dissolve them in acid, in water; observe a sample of granite--compare the grains of crystals, find main minerals by their colors and purities, compare it with a diorite or basalt sample (color, grain, purity), compare with a piece of glass (olivine, serpentine); compare a mica schist with a schist--degree of crystallization; compare a granulite with a granite; they are similar in purity but different in strata settlement. 4. Paleontology: Observe a fossil--form, mineral structure, purity (limestone, sand, clay, schist), draw conditions of fossilization; describe some existing fossils around the school.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION (3 hrs a wk): Same activities as in former grades, more advanced.

Second Cycle

10th Grade: Modern Literature Major (Section C) and Classical Literature Major (Section

Subjects	MODERN LITERATURE (C) Number of Hours Per Week	CLASSICAL LITERATURE (D) Number of Hours Per Week
Vietnamese	5	5
History	2	2
Geography	1	1
Civic Education	2	2
Philosophy	0	0
First Foreign Languages	6	6
Second Foreign Languages	6	0
Classical Languages	0	6
Physics	½	½
Chemistry	½	½
Mathematics	1	1
Natural Sciences	1	1
Physical Education	3	3
Total	28 hours	28 hours

VIETNAMESE (5 hrs a wk)

A. LITERATURE. 1. Folk Literature: Sino-Vietnamese literature during the Trấn Dynasty and up to Nguyễn Du's work; introduction of Chinese works written by the Vietnamese during the same period. 2. Forms of Literature: Couplet, essays, funeral oration. 2. Excerpts To Be Studied: Classical operas--Kim Thạch Kỳ Duyên, Địch Thanh Ly Hận, Tượng Kỹ Khí Xa; Poems under Hồng Đức's Dynasty, Nguyễn Bỉnh Khiêm, Phạm Thái, Nguyễn Huy Lượng, Lê Quí Đôn, Đặng Đức Siêu, Nguyễn Văn Thành; longer ones from: Chinh Phụ Ngâm Khúc, Cung Oán Ngâm Khúc, Hoa Tiên, Đoạn Trường Tân Thanh. B. DICTATION AND GRAMMAR. Not applicable to grade 10. C. EXERCISES. 1. Oral Presentation by Students: On works and authors studied in Part A. 2. Essay: General dissertation on topics requiring students to use their knowledge of other subjects such as history, geography, civic education, moral education, sciences, and relate them to practical social situations and events; literary dissertation.

HISTORY (2 hrs a wk)

VIETNAMESE HISTORY FROM 1407 TO 1802. 1. Period the Minh's domination (Chinese); policy and administrative organization of the Minh; infiltration of the Chinese culture; consequences. 2. Lê Lợi's Uprising. 3. Post Lê Dynasty: Brief history of the period from Lê Thái Tổ's reign to 1527; administration--organization of the administration, law, organization of the national defense, economy--finance, culture, social aspects; foreign affairs--relations with China, with other neighboring countries; advance toward the South--war against the Chiêm, movement to migrate the people to the new area and to cultivate it; social aspects of the Đại Việt (name of Việt-Nam at that time) life, social customs, and events. 4. The Mạc Dynasty. 5. The Restoration of Lê Dynasty: The governments of the North and the South. 6. Civil war between the Trịnh and the Nguyễn families. 7. Đại Việt society under the Reigns of Trịnh and Nguyễn: In the North--internal administration, daily life and society; in the South--internal administration, advance toward the South, occupation of the Chiêm's land and Chân Lạp, migration and land clearance, social activities; contact with the West (emphasize cultural effects). 8. Dynasty of Tây Sơn: The revolution; King Quang Trung destroyed the Thanh's army; diplomatic relations with China; Vietnamese society under Tây Sơn's Dynasty. 9. Nguyễn Ánh's national unification.

GEOGRAPHY (1 hr a wk)

A. PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY. 1. Generalities of the Earth: Origin of the Earth; movement of the Earth (day and night, hour, seasons, directions). 2. The Earth's Geology: Geological periods; kinds of rocks; earthquakes; erosion and soil deposits. 3. Study of Terrain: Địa Hình Thái Học: Địa thế địa bồn thuỷ tra thạch (characteristics, cuesta, flat highland); folded terrain (original forms)--anticline, syncline, and some changed terrains, combe, ruz, cluse; bouclier, massif anciens, their formation, eroded surface--peneplain, faille, horst, graber; volcano--lava, forms of volcanoes; icebergs (their forms); desert (different forms); sea coast. 4. Climate: Atmosphere; climate factors and elements; equatorial, tropical, temperate and arctic zones; study of some special kinds of climate--monsoon, mediterranean, desert. 5. Hydrology: Ocean; river, pond, lake. 6. Animals and Vegetation. B. HUMAN GEOGRAPHY. 1. Population: World population; distribution of population in the world; population variations--birth rate, death rate, increase rate. 2. Ethnology: Race; languages; religion. C. ECONOMIC GEOGRAPHY. 1. Economic Activities: Early economic activities; industrial activities; transportation and business activities.

CIVIC EDUCATION (2 hrs a wk)

A. THE NATION. 1. Elements of a Nation: The people; the land; the government. 2. An Independent Country (Emphasize self-determination): International relations; basis to organize and administer public power--the constitution and national laws. 3. Organization of Public Powers (use the examples of the Republic of Việt-Nam): Legislative; executive; judiciary. B. THE SOCIETY. 1. Social Relations: Courtesy (how to speak, greet, introduce oneself, etc.); weddings and funerals. 2. Teen-age Law Breakers: Causes; law-breaking forms; effects and solutions.

FIRST FOREIGN LANGUAGES (6 hrs a wk)

A. ENGLISH. 1. Grammar: Study in detail the 8th and 9th grade programs of study. 2. Literature: Political, cultural, economic, and social life of Great Britain by text study; outside reading of any simplified edition written by the authors studied in the literature program. 3. Assignments: Dictation--summarize the text studied; answer questions related to the units; do the tests related to the texts studied or to literature; write essays on simple topics; translate into English or vice versa. 4. Textbook: English for Today, Book III: the last 10 lessons, and Book IV: lessons 9, 13, 14, 15, 16. B. FRENCH. 1. French Culture: Cours de Langue de Civilisation Française by Mauger, Book II, Lessons 21-50; textbook. 2. French Literature: La Fontaine; Moliere; Alphonse Daudet; Anatole France. 3. Grammar: Learn grammar while studying the texts in Cours de Langue de Civilisation Francaise by Mauger, Book II, Lessons 21-50. 4. Assignments: Translate text study into English and vice versa; write easy essays on common topics.

SECOND FOREIGN LANGUAGES (6 hrs a wk)

A. ENGLISH. Textbook: English for Today, Book I, McGraw-Hill Book Co., N.Y. 1962. B. FRENCH. Vocabulary; conversation; reading; recitation; grammar; dictation; written assignments from Cours de Langue de Civilisation Francaise by Mauger, Book I.

CLASSICAL LANGUAGES (6 hrs a wk) [For Classical Literature Major only]

A. SINO-VIETNAMESE. 1. Text Study: Modern Vietnamese language; ancient Chinese and Vietnamese poems (emphasize Chinese and Vietnamese texts which have been handed down to the present time or have been translated into Vietnamese); texts--classical language and Chinese poem collections, Hoàng Việt's prose collection, Hoàng Việt's poem collection, excerpts from Vietnamese history and geography; tell stories related to the texts. 2. Literature: General study of the authors of the texts studied. 3. Vocabulary: Expressions, idioms, classical allusion. 4. Grammar and Calligraphy. 5. Assignments: Translate Tam Quốc Chí from Sino-Vietnamese to Vietnamese; write essays from memory. B. LATIN (Read Latin according to Roman pronunciation): 1. Morphology: Transformation of nouns, adjectives and pronouns; verb conjugation; words which have not been transformed; structure of a simple sentence; order of words in a sentence. 2. Grammar: Explanation of a number of main prefixes and suffixes. 3. Exercises: Read and translate short and easy paragraphs. 4. Authors: Epitone Historiae; Graecae; Phedre; 20 selected fables.

PHYSICS (½ hr a wk)

A. FORCE. 1. Study: Measurement of force by the extension of a spring; units--force kilogram, Newton; experiment with parallel forces and converging forces; add and revolving forces; force couple. 2. Work and Power: Definitions; units--Joule, Watt. B. HYDROSTATICS. 1. Definition of Pressure:

Unit: N/m^2; pressure at a point in liquid; difference of pressure between two points in liquid; pressure at a point on the wall or at the bottom of a liquid container. 2. Archimedes' Principle. C. TEMPERATURE. Mercury thermometer; isothermal opression of gas, law of Mariotte; definition of the specific weight of a gas; heat--units: calorie, Joule; definition of heat of solids and liquids.

CHEMISTRY (½ hr a wk)

A. REVIEW. 1. Basics: Water; hydrogen; oxygen; air; mixtures and compounds; lime; ammoniac; sulfur; sulfurons anhydride; sulfuric acid; nitric acid; carbon; carbonic anhydride; carbon oxide; basic concepts of acids, bases, and Salts. B. ATOMIC THEORY. 1. Introduction : Nomenclature; formulas.

MATHEMATICS (1 hr a wk)

A. PLANE GEOMETRY. 1. The Ratio of Two Straight Line Segments: Points dividing a straight line segment according to predetermined ratio; algebraic ratio of two parallel vectors; Thales' theorem; similar triangles; formulas in a right triangle; relations between the sections determined by a circle cutting two concurrent straight lines. 2. Sine, Cosine, and Tangent of an Acute Angle: Trigonometric formulas in a right triangle; length of the projection of a line segment; how to use the sine, cosine, and tangent tables. 3. Review of equilateral polygons and the length of an arc (accepting the formula $L = 2\pi R$); radian. 4. Review of the area of a circular sector (accepting the area of the circle to be πR^2). B. CALCULUS. 1. Vector, Algebraic Values, Chasles Formula: Determining a point on a plane by two orthogonal coordinates. 2. Function of a Variable: Function defined in a range; study of the function $y = ax$; $y = ax+b$; $y = \frac{1}{x}$; $y = \frac{a}{x}$. 3. Equation and Inequality Having One Unknown: System of two linear equations with two unknowns.

NATURAL SCIENCES (1 hr a wk)

A. INTRODUCTION. 1. Definition of Special Fields: Aim; application; the Earth in the universe; structure of the Earth; Earth temperature. B. MINERALOGY.

1. Introduction to Minerals: Main kinds--quartz, feldspar, mica. 2. Rock Study: Generalities of rocks; vocanic rocks--structure, classification, main kinds--granite and basalt; sedimentary rocks--main kinds; metamorphic rocks--gneiss, mica, schist. C. PALEONTOLOGY. Definition of fossoil; main findings of Paleontology.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION (3 hrs a wk): Same, more advanced, activities as in former grades.

Second Cycle

11th Grade: Experimental Science Major (Section A) and Mathematics Major (Section B)

Subjects	EXPERIMENTAL SCIENCE (A) Number of Hours Per Week	MATHEMATICS (B) Number of Hours Per Week
Vietnamese	3	3
History	2	2
Geography	1	1
Civic Education	2	2
Philosophy	0	0
First Foreign Languages	4	4
Second Foreign Languages	4	4
Classical Languages	0	0
Physics	3	3
Chemistry	1-½	1-½
Mathematics	4	6
Natural Sciences	3	1
Physical Education	3	3
Total	30-½ hours	30-½ hours

VIETNAMESE (3 hrs a wk)

A. TEXT STUDY AND LITERATURE. 1. Literature: Same as Modern Literature Major but in less detail. 2. Poetry Form: Modern poetry. 3. Study of excerpts written by Nguyễn Công Trứ, Nguyễn Khuyến, Trần Tế Xương, Đông Dương Tạp Chí Group, Nam Phong Group (Phạm Quỳnh), Nguyễn Khắc Hiếu (prose) Tự Lực Văn Đoàn: Nhất Linh (Đoạn Tuyệt), Khái Hưng (Nửa Chừng Xuân), Hoàng Đạo (Mười Điều Tâm Niệm). B. EXERCISES. 1. Oral Presentation: Same as Modern Literature Major. 2. Essay: Same as Modern Literature Major.

HISTORY (2 hrs a wk): Same as Modern Literature Major.

GEOGRAPHY (1 hr a wk): Same as Modern Literature Major.

CIVIC EDUCATION (2 hrs a wk): Same as Modern Literature Major.

FIRST FOREIGN LANGUAGES (4 hrs a wk)

A. ENGLISH. Same as Modern Literature Major but in less detail and including excerpts dealing with science. No literature. B. FRENCH. Same as Modern Literature Major except 19th Century literature, and essays.

SECOND FOREIGN LANGUAGES (4 hrs a wk)

A. ENGLISH. Textbook: English for Today, Book II. B. FRENCH. 1. Vocabulary, conversation, reading, recitation, dictation, grammar from Cours de Langue de Civilisation Française by Mauger, Book I, Lessons 36-65. 2. Written Assignments: Answer questions in readings and dictations; answer questions focused on the same topic; make sentences according to the teacher's examples.

PHYSICS (3 hrs a wk)

A. OPTICS. 1. Linear Propagation of Light: Virtual and real images; eclipses, solar and lunar. 2. Reflection of Light: Plane mirror; statement of Descartes-Snell law; rotating mirror; field vision. 3. Refraction of Light: Statement of Descartes-Snell law; refraction index--absolute and relative refraction indices; method of drawing a refracted ray; partial refraction, total reflection; application--totally reflecting prism; reflection and refraction at plane surface--images and formulas; plane parallel plate--ray treatment, images, and formula. 4. Prisms: Ray treatment, formulas, condition for the existence of an emergent ray; experimental discussion of deviation; angle of deviation; minimum angle of deviation; thin lens--definition and classification (converging and diverging lens); condition for clear images; converging lens--ray treatment, images, Descartes formula; measurement of focal length by the Silbermann method; diverging lens--ray treatment, image, Descartes formula. 5. Degree of Convergence: Definition, formulas to measure the degree of convergence from refraction index and lens radii (without proof); compound lens; theorem on the degree of convergence; application to the measurement of the focal length of a diverging lens. 6. The Simplified Eye: Accommodation process; normal eye; near-sightedness; far-sightedness; old eye; medical spectacles; resolving power. 7. Magnifier: Range of viewing; magnification; commercial magnification; microscope--range of viewing; magnification; commercial magnification; telescope--principles, magnification (excluding the method of measurement); diffraction of light by a prism; definition of light spectra. B. ELECTRICITY. 1. Atomic Structure: Electrons; nuclei (excluding the nuclear structure); ions; electric current in conducting metal and in conducting solvent. 2. Electric Generator: Electromagnetic force; motors; potential difference; power; Ohm law, Pouillet law; power efficiency. 3. Parallel Circuit: Theorems; equivalent resistance; resistance box; measurement of resistance by the Wheatstone Bridge; measurement of the electromagnetic force by voltmeter; connection of electric generators. 4. Magnetism: Natural magnet and man-made magnet; poles; magnetic energy density; Coulomb law; magnetic field--induced field; equation $F = mB$; lines of field; uniform magnetic field; the effect of a uniform magnetic filed on a magnet; magnetic movement; magnetic flux through a surface area; magnetic field of the Earth. 5. Electromagnetism: Magnetic field of a current; Oerstedt experiment; magnetic field of an infinite straight wire, a loop, and a solenoid; experiment about the effect of a uniform magnetic field on a definite straight wire; statement of Laplace law; application; the Barlow wheel; induced interaction between two parallel straight wires; definition of Ampere; work of an electromagnetic force; Maxwell law; the principle of maximum magnetic flux; magnetization; qualitative experiment about the magnetization of crude iron and steel; Galvanometer; iron-core rotating ammeter and voltmeter.

STRY (1-$\frac{1}{2}$ hrs a wk)

1. Review of: Acids, bases, and salts (in light of the ionization theory); Berthollet law; oxidizers and deoxidizers (oxidization numbers); physical and mechanical properties of metals and metallic alloys; common processes in metallurgy. 2. Zinc: Zinc oxide and sulfates. 3. Aluminium: Aluminates; aluminum sulfate; alum; iron; cast iron; steel; iron oxides; iron sulfates;

properties of iron salts of types II and III. 4. Copper: Copperous alloys; copperous oxides and sulfates. 5. Lead: Alloys; lead oxides.

MATHEMATICS (4 hrs a wk) [For Experimental Science Major (A)]

A. SPACE GEOMETRY. 1. Lines and Planes: Parallelism of lines and planes; perpendicularity of a plane and a line; line segments, perpendicular and oblique; angle of two intersecting planes; definitions of angles of trihedral and polyhedral cones. 2. Linear Projection onto a Plane (of a point, a line and a line segment): Angle of a line and a plane; definitions of reflections in a point, a line, and a plane; definitions of center, axis, and plane of inflections. 3. Definitions: Parallelepipeds, polyhedral cylinders and cones; volume of a right parallelepiped; volumes of polyhedral cylinders and cones (without proofs); extended areas of orthogonal polyhedral cylinders and cones; circularly symmetric cylinders and cones; peripherical areas of these cylinders and cones (without proofs); volumes of these cylinders and cones (without proof). 4. Spheres: Intersection of a sphere and a line; tangent line to a sphere; plane cross-section; contact planes; determination of a sphere; definitions of cones and cylinder circumscribing a sphere; volume and surface area of a sphere (no proofs). B. ANALYSIS. 1. General Equation of Second Degree with One Unknown: Existence and determination of solutions; sum and product of the roots; sign of roots; given the sum and product of the two roots, find the roots; second degree polynomial; factorization into products; variation of second degree polynomial; inequalities of second degree. 2. Definition and Geometrical Meaning of Differentiation: Rules to evaluate derivatives (derivative of a sum, derivative of a product); the relationship between the variation of a function and the sign of its derivative; functions of second order; monotonous functions; functions of the form $\frac{ax^2 + bx + c}{a'x^2+b'x+c'}$. 3. Linear Motion: Equation of motion; uniform linear motion; the Algebraic value of velocity; uniformly accelerating linear motion; equation of motion; the instant Algebraic value of velocity. C. TRIGONOMETRY. The same as the curriculum for section B, excluding the part on logarithmic functions.

MATHEMATICS (6 hrs a wk) [For Mathematics Major (B)]

A. SPACE GEOMETRY. 1. Lines and Planes and Their Determination: Cross-ratio; parallelism of line and plane; perpendicularity of line and plane; line segments, perpendicular and oblique; angle of two intersecting planes; definition of angle of trihedral cones and polyhedral cones. 2. Linear Projection (of a point, a line and two parallel lines): Projection of a right angle; angle of a line and a plane; projection of a line segment onto a plane; principal inclined line of a plane; common perpendicular segment of two lines; projected area of a plane polygon. 3. Definitions: Reflection in a line, a point, and a plane; axis, center and surface of reflection; equivalent vectors; isometries; ratio of two parallel vectors; similarities, similarity of a plane, a line, and a circle. 4. Polyhedral Cylinder and Polyhedral Cone: Cross-section parrallel to bottom surface; volume of a box; volume of a polyhedral cylinder; volume of a polyhedral cone; extended surfaces of a cylinder and a cone; contact surfaces; volume of a cylinder and a cone. 5. Sphere: Intersection of a sphere and a line; plane cross-section; tangent line; contact planes; determination of a sphere; cylindrical and conical surfaces circumscribing a sphere; volume of a spherical sector, a spherical shell, a polar partial sphere. B. ANALYSIS. 1.. Arithmetic Series: Progressive series; logarithm; compound interest; annuity; limit; continuity (proofs of the theorems on limit are not obligatory); indifinite forms. 2. Definition and Geometrical Meaning of Differentiation: Rules to evaluate derivatives (derivative of a sum, derivative of a product); the relationship between the variation of a function and the sign of its derivative; functions of second degree; monotonous function; functions of third degree; functions of the form $\frac{ax^2+bx+c}{a'x^2+b'x+c'}$. 3. Linear Motion: Equation of motion; uniform linear motion; the Algebraic value of velocity; uniformly accelerating linear motion; equation of motion; the instant Algebraic value of velocity. C. TRIGONOMETRY. 1. Trigonometric Arcs and Angles: Trigonometric functions (sine, cosine, tangent, cotangent); periodicity; relationships among trigonometric functions of the same angle; functions of negative angles; functions of angles in all quadrants in terms of those in the first quadrant; exact value for trigonometric functions of some special angles; equations: $\sin x = \sin a$, $\cos x = \cos a$, $\tan x = \tan a$. 2. Addition of Vectors: Projection of the addition vector on a definite axis; addition formulas for trigonometric functions; half-angle formulas for trigonometric functions; sum, difference, and product of trigonometric functions. 3. Use of the Trigonometric and Logarithmic Tables: Equalities and inequalities in trigonometry (focus on the solution and discussion of the equation: $a \cos x + b \cos x = c$); the functions $\sin x$, $\cos x$, $\tan x$ and $\cot$an x; derivatives and graphs of these functions; derivatives of the functions sin (ax+b) and cos (ax+b); the period of a periodic function; variation of several simple trigonometric functions.

NATURAL SCIENCES (3 hrs a wk: 2 hrs lecture; 1 hr lab) [For Experimental Science Major (A)]

A. CLASS WORK (2 hrs a wk). 1. Generalities of Botany: General structure of a flowering plant--description of a plant having roots, stem, leaves, flowers, fruits and seeds; chemical composition and the physical properties of protoplasm; plant cell--structure, physiology; cell nucleus--DNA and RNA and synthesis of proteins; cell division; plant tissues; roots, stem, and leaves--parts of roots, stem, and leaves, primary structure, secondary structure, growth (roots and stem). 2. Plant Nutrition: Autotrophs--growth hormone and phototropic growth, absorption of water and inorganic salts, metabolism of nitrogen compounds (not including its cycle), circulation of xylem sap (active transport), assimilation of carbon dioxide (photosynthesis). [Experiments proving the assimilation of chlorophyll; chlorophyll intake, function; outcome of chlorophyll intake; the contemporary theory of the chlorophyll assimilation.] 3. Synthesis of Protein and Lipid: The circulation of phloem sap; plant respiration. [Experiments proving respiration (of a plant and a tissue); intensity of respiration; quotient of respiration; outcome of respiration.] 4. Anaerobic Life--Fermentation: Plants' food--synthetic method, survey on plants' food; principles; knop and sachs media; summary on plants' food. 5. Application in Agriculture: Heterotrophs--definition; predatic plants; parasitic plants; symbiotic plants; summary of plant nutrition; changes made by nitrogen and carbon in nature--nitrogen cycle, carbon cycle. 6. Vegetation and Its Media: General study on ecology; relationship between soil and plants--characteristics of soil, influence of vegetation on plants and vice versa; influence of climate on vegetation; interaction between different kinds of plants--competition (self-protection against climate), interdependence and mutualism; generalities of the plant kingdom--distribution of biomes; evolution of certain biotic communitics. 7. Reproduction: Asexual reproduction; sexual reproduction of angiosperms--morphology of a flower with all parts; anatomy of--stamen, pistil; fertilization--pollination, germination of pollen grains, union of gametes; fruits--development of a fruit, biology of fruits, kinds of fruits; seeds--seed formation, kinds of seeds, germination. 8. Pasteur's Contribution: Bacteria (general study only);

fermentation. B. LAB WORK (1 hr a wk). Each student has a notebook to take notes and make drawings. Lesseon 1: A flowering plant with roots, stem, leaves, flowers; fruits and seeds; each student brings one of such plants to class; after class, they draw all parts of the plant in the notebook. Lesson 2: Dehydration reaction of Fehling solution on glucose; color reactions of proteins. Lesson 3: Cell; tissue (if miscroscope is available, the students observe the onion skin cell, leaves, and different tissues). Lesson 4: Roots stem, and leaves; in regards to forms--the students make a collection of different kinds of roots, trunks, and leaves, how to press and dry them; on structure--if microscope is available, the students observe the cross-sectioned samples. Lesson 5: Experiments to show that the root is the organ that absorbs water and inorganic salts. Lesson 6: Experiments to show the assimilation of chlorophyll of green plants. Lesson 7: How to extract chlorophyll--chromatography. Lesson 8: Observation of flowers, fruits and seeds; draw them in the notebook.

NATURAL SCIENCES (1 hr a wk) [For Mathematics Major (B)]

A. GENERALITIES OF BOTANY. Part 1: Description of a flowering plant having roots, stem, leaves, flowers, fruits and seeds; plant cell; plant tissues; roots, stem, leaves (cotyledons), monocots, and dicots; parts of a root, a stem, a leaf; primary structure; secondary structure--root and trunk of a dicotyledon. Part 2: Plant nutrition; metabolism of nitrogen compounds; circulation of upward sap (active transport); the assimilation of chlorophyll; plant respiration; fermentation; circulation of outward sap (diffusion). Part 3: Sexual reproduction of an angiosperm; description of a flower (with all reproduction organs), structure of stamens and pistils, fertilization.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION (3 hrs a wk)

Review all activities in the former grades; organize competitive matches between classes; first-aid training.

Second Cycle

11th Grade: Modern Literature Major (Section C) and Classical Literature Major (Section D)

Subjects	MODERN LITERATURE (C) Number of Hours Per Week	CLASSICAL LITERATURE (D) Number of Hours Per Week
Vietnamese	5	5
History	2	2
Geography	1	1
Civic Education	2	2
Philosophy	0	0
First Foreign Languages	6	6
Second Foreign Languges	6	0
Classical Languages	0	6
Physics	½	½
Chemistry	½	½
Mathematics	1	1
Natural Sciences	1	1
Physical Education	3	3
Total	28 hours	28 hours

VIETNAMESE (5 hrs a wk)

A. LITERATURE. 1. Forms of Literature: From Nguyễn Du to 1945; review Hát Nói, Đưởng Luật form of Poetry; modern Poetry. 2. Study Excerpts of: Nguyễn Công Trứ; Cao Bá Quát; Nguyễn Đình Chiểu; Chu Mạnh Trinh; Nguyễn Khuyến; Trần Tế Xương; Staff of Đồng Dương Tạp Chí (Phan Kế Bính); Nam Phong Magazine Staff (Phạm Quỳnh, Nguyễn Trọng Thuật); Nguyễn Khắc Hiếu (prose); Tự Lực Văn Đoàn groups: Nhất Linh (his work: Đoan Tuyệt), Khái Hưng (Nửa Chửng Xuân), Hoàng Đạo (Mưởi Điều Tâm Niệm). B. EXERCISES. 1. Student's oral presentation of the works written by the authors mentioned in the literature program to help the students learn how to express themselves naturally and clearly. 2. Essays:

Analyse and discuss literature topics; how to write an outline and to organize different parts of the essay.

HISTORY (2 hrs a wk)

A. VIETNAMESE HISTORY (from 1802 to 1884). 1. The Nguyễn Dynasty: General history from King Gia Long to King Tự Đức; administration--government organization, law, defense organization, economics and finance, cultural and social situations, religious persecution; foreign relations--with China and other neighboring countries, with Western countries; the Vietnamese society in the 14th century--social structure, ways of living, modernization campaign. 2. The French Invasion: The French attack of Đà Nẵng; the loss of the three Eastern provinces of South Việt-Nam; treaty of 1862; the loss of the three Western provinces of South Việt-Nam; the first French attack of North Viet-Nam; the French attack of Thuận Hóa; the treaties of 1883-1884; the French-Chinese conflict in North Việt-Nam. B. WORLD HISTORY (from the end of the 18th Century to 1914). 1. The U.S.A.: From the campaign for independence to 1914. 2. England: The progress of the parliamentary regime. 3. The Industrial Revolution. 4. The European revolution in the second half of the 18th century. 5. The colony expansion of the Western countries (Europe). 6. China and the colonialists' invasion: Tân Hợi Revolution. 7. Japan: Minh Trị Era. 8. The Far-East countries facing the colonialists' invasion: (Burma, Thailand, Laos, Cambodia, Malaysia, Philippines, Indonesia).

GEOGRAPHY (1 hr a wk)

A. PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY. 1. General view of Việt-Nam: Location, shape, and area of Việt-Nam; its boundaries (natural and legal). 2. Physical Aspects: The terrain--mountain and highland, delta, coast and sea bottom; climate--the climatic areas; hydrology and oceanography--river, pond and lake, ocean water and its movement, animals and vegetation under sea; distribution of animals and vegetation. B. HUMAN GEOGRAPHY. 1. Population of Việt-Nam: Ethnography--ethnic groups, languages, religions, customs; changes in population enumeration; migration; population distribution--in the country, in the city; forms of habitation (in the country, in the city). 2. Political Geography:

Political regime in Việt-Nam; central and local administration. 3. Economic Geography: Agricultural activities (farming, husbandry, fishery); arts and crafts, industry; communication, trade.

CIVIC EDUCATION (2 hrs a wk)

A. BASIC ECONOMICS. 1. Basic Concept: Definition; objective; usefulness. 2. Economic Policy: Free economic policy--its start, support argument and policy, how to carry it out, its consequences; the study of rigid and flexible economic policies--arguments for and against each policy, how to carry them out; their conquences. 3. Factors of Production: Natural resources, capital, labor, technique; outline of production factors in Việt-Nam; production and trade agencies--private enterprise--definition, classification, merging of companies; condition of private enterprises in Viet-Nam; public corporations--definition, classification; condition of public corporations in Việt-Nam; cooperatives--condition of cooperatives in Việt-Nam. 4. Money: Generalities on monetary system in Việt-Nam--definition, brief history of evolution; gold and silver coins; paper money (issue procedure, inflation, depreciation). 5. Credits and Banks: Credits--definition, kinds, role; summary on credits in Việt-Nam; banks--definition of main transaction, central banks, commercial banks.

FIRST FOREIGN LANGUAGES (6 hrs a wk)

A. ENGLISH. 1. Text Study and Literature: Text--Great Britain's political, social, cultural and economic aspects; Literature--summary of Great Britain's literature of the 19th and 20th centeries [the student makes a report in Vietnamese; summary and questions will be made in English]; outside reading--encourage students to read a simplified version of an author in the literature program. 2. Grammar: Review and gain futher grammatical knowledge acquired in previous years. 3. Assignments: Same as in 10th Grade for Literature Major. B. FRENCH. 1. French Culture (2 hrs a wk). 2. French Literature: 19th century, including Chateaubriand; Lamartine; Victor Hugo; George Sand. 3. Grammar: Follow the order in Cours de Langue de Civilization Française, Lessons 51-70. 4. Written Assignments: Text study; translation; essays on common topic (description, narration, letter writing).

SECOND FOREIGN LANGUAGES (6 hrs a wk) [For Modern Literature Major (C) only]

A. ENGLISH. English for Today, Book II. B. FRENCH. 1. Vocabulary, Conversation, Reading, Dictation, Grammar, Recitation from Cours de Langue de Civilization Francaise by Mauger, Book I, Lessons 36-65. 2. Written Assignments: Answer questions in the readings and dictations; answer questions related to the same topic; make sentences according to the teacher's examples.

CLASSICAL LANGUAGES (6 hrs a wk) [For Classical Literature Major (D) only]

A. SINO-VIETNAMESE. 1. Text Study (2 hrs a wk): Modern Vietnamese; classical prose and poetry of China and Viêt-Nam, which have been translated into Vietnamese. 2. Literature (1 hr a wk): Make a brief study of the authors when the students study their texts. 3. Vocabulary (1 hr a wk): Idioms; expressions; references in the texts to be studied. 4. Grammar (1 hr a wk): Syntax; prosody; discuss poetry forms briefly. 5. Assignments (1 hr a wk): Translate from Sino-Vietnamese to Vietnamese (Dong Chu Liet Quoc); learn to use the dictionary. B. LATIN. 1. Complete study of morphology; structure of a compound sentence. 2. Vocabulary: Mutation and structure of words. 3. Exercises: Text study, translation of authors--Corneluis Nepos: Miltiades, Hannibal, Epaminondas; Caesar: De Bello Gallico.

PHYSICS (½ hr a wk)

A. OPTICS. 1. Linear Propagation of Light: Light reflection; plane mirrors; statement of Descartes-Snell law; light refraction; statement of Descartes-Snell laws; definition of relative and absolute indices of refraction; diffraction of light by prism. 2. Thin Lens: Definition and classification (converging lens and diverging lens); converging lens--ray treatment, focal point, focal length, imaging (omitting formulas); the principles of a magnifier. B. ELECTRICITY. 1. Atomic Structure: Electrons, nuclei (omitting the nuclear structure); ions; electric current. 2. Generators: Electromagnetic force; motors; potential difference. C. MAGNETISM. 1. Natural Magnets and Man-made Magnets: Poles; qualitative difinition of magnetic field; existence of the Earth's magnetic field; magnetic field of an electric current; Oerstedt experiment.

CHEMISTRY (½ hr a wk)

SUMMARY. Introduction to oxidizers and de-oxidizers; review on common processes in metallurgy; common metals--zinc, iron, cast iron, steel, aluminium, copper, lead (physical and mechnical properties of only zinc, iron, aluminium and copper are discussed).

MATHEMATICS (1 hr a wk)

A. SPACE GEOMETRY. 1. Lines and Planes and Their Determination: Cross-ratios; parallelism of a line and a plane; perpendicularity of a line and a plane; line segment, perpendicular and oblique; angle of two intersecting planes; perpendicular planes; definitions of angles of trihedral and polyhedral cones; definitions of reflections (in a point, a line, and a plane); definitions of center, axis, and plane of inflections; definitions of parallelpipeds, polyhedral cylinders and cones, circular cylinders and cones; peripherical areas and volumes (without proofs); definition of spheres; intersection of a sphere and a plane; tangent lines; contact planes; surface area and volume of a sphere (no proof).
B. ANALYSIS. 1. General Equation of Second Degree with One Unknown: Condition for the existence of roots; evaluation of roots; sum and product of roots; sign of roots. 2. Variation of polynomials of second degree with constant coefficients; graphs.

NATURAL SCIENCES (1 hr a wk)

GENERALITIES OF BOTANY. Part 1: Description of a flowering plant having roots, stem, leaves, flowers, fruits and seeds; plant cell; plant tissues; roots, stem, leaves (cotyledons), monocots and dicots--parts of a root, a stem, a leaf; primary structure; secondary structure--root and trunk of a dicotyledon. Part 2: Plant nutrition; metabolism of nitrogen compounds; circulation of upward sap (active transport); the assimilation of chlorophyll; plant respiration; fermentation; circulation of outward sap (diffusion). Part 3: Sexual reproduction of an angiosperm; description of a flower (with all reproduction organs); structure of stamens and pistils; fertilization.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION (3 hrs a wk)

Review all activities in the former grades; organize competitive matches between classes; first-aid training.

Second Cycle

12th Grade: Experimental Science Major (Section A) and Mathematic Major (Section B)

Subjects	EXPERIMENTAL SCIENCE (A) Number of Hours Per Week	MATHEMATICS (B) Number of Hours Per Week
Vietnamese	0	0
History	1-½	1-½
Geography	1-½	1-½
Civic Education	1	1
Philosophy	4	3
First Foreign Languages	3	3
Second Foreign Languages	3	3
Classical Languages	0	0
Physics	5	5
Chemistry	2	2
Mathematics	5	9
Natural Sciences	4	1
Physical Education	3	3
Total	33 hours	33 hours

HISTORY (1-½ hrs a wk): Same as Modern Literature Major.

GEOGRAPHY (1-½ hrs a wk): Same as Modern Literature Major.

CIVIC EDUCATION (1 hr a wk): Same as Modern Literature Major.

PHILOSOPHY [3 hrs a wk for Mathematics Major; 4 hrs a wk for Experimental Science Major]

A. PSYCHOLOGY. Same as Modern Literature Major except--abstraction and generalization; use of symbols; language and ideas; judgment and reasoning; will; feeling;

reason; freedom. B. LOGIC. Same as Modern Literature Major *except*--some examples about the contemporary theories in Physics, Chemistry, and Biology. C. ETHICS. Same as Modern Literature Major.

FIRST FOREIGN LANGUAGES (3 hrs a wk)

A. ENGLISH. Same as Modern Literature Major but in less detail; texts concentrate on scientific terms; literature. B. FRENCH. Same as Modern Literature Major.

SECOND FOREIGN LANGUAGES (3 hrs a wk)

A. ENGLISH. *English for Today*, Book III. B. FRENCH. 1. *Vocabulary*, *Conversation*, *Reading*, *Recitation*, *Grammar*, *Dictation* from *Cours de Langue de Civilisation Française*, Book II, Lessons 1-36. 2. *Assignment*: Answer questions based on the reading and dictation; answer consecutive questions related to the same topic; build sentences according to a given pattern; translate short texts.

PHYSICS (5 hrs a wk)

A. KINETICS AND DYNAMICS. 1. *Errors and Probability*: Approximate formula; free fall in vacuum; a hanging bob; Newton's tube; motion photography. 2. *The Fundamental Law of Kinetics* (without proofs): Mass; weights; a system of mass points; external and internal forces; center of mass--position determination of center of mass; theorem on center of mass. 3. *Application to Translational Motion*: Tension; uniform circular motion (spherical pendulum, motion of a car at a curve, sattelite, oscillation of a mass-spring system); three-demensional motion of a particle in vacuum; rotation of a rigid body about an axis; fundamenta equation of kinetics for the rotational motion of a rigid body; inertial motion; statement of Huyghens' theorem; sinusoidal motion; rotation of a torsional pendulum. 4. *Kinetic Energy*: Definition and theorems; applications--sliding or rolling without sliding on an inclined surface; relativistic formulas related to kinetic energy. 5. *Potential Energy*: Potential energy of gravitational field; potential energy of elastic forces; mechanical energy--

conservation of mechanical energy. 6. Compound Pendulum: Theoretical consideration of small oscillations--formula to find period; simple pendulum--formula to find the period equivalent to that of the compound pendulum (excluding reversible pendulum). 7. Momentum: Convervation theorem; principles of rockets. 8. Air Friction: Final velocity; applications--airplanes; parachutes; definition of the velocity unit Mach; convertibility of heat and work; energy units--calorie, Joule. 9. Heat Engine: Principles of 4-stroke engine; principles of 2-stroke engine; virtual power; real power; real (or industrial) efficiency and heat efficiency; Carnot principle and theorem; maximum heat efficiency; principles of a refrigerator. 10. Forms and Transformations of Energy (mechanical energy, heat, electricity, radiation, chemical energy): Conservation of energy; Einstein equation. B. PERIODIC MOTIONS. 1. Definition of a Periodic Motion: Period, frequency; Fourier theorem; methods of observation. 2. Propagation of a Pulse: Horizontal and vertical motion; velocity of propagation; propagation of a sinusoidal wave; wave length and equation of motion; Fresnel principle of superposition of 2 sinusoidal waves of identical period moving in the same direction; interference--theoretical and experimental discussion on wave magnitude. 3. Reflection of Waves: Standing waves; assumptions on wave motion; velocity (excluding the method of measurement); wave length; ultraviolet and infrared light--definition and properties; Young's experiment on interference of monochromatic light by two slits. C. ELECTRICITY. 1. Electromagnetic Induction: Lorenz law; induced emf; self-induction; induction unit--Henry. 2. Principles of a Plate Capacitor: Capacitance--definition,unit--(Farad); formula to determine capacitance of a plate capacitor; stored energy (without proof); capacitors in series and in parallel; plate capacitor box of variable capacitance; electric field between the two plates. 3. Definition of an Alternate Current: Generation of an alternate current; properties (experimental approach); efficient current; efficient potential; effects of induction and capacitance on circuits; evaluation of total reactance of a circuit (using Fresnel diagram) excluding the cases where there are emf and motors or where a parallel circuit is involved; average power; power coefficient. 4. Principles of a Transformer: Formulas (without proof); application to energy transportation; properties of electromagnetic waves. D. NUCLEAR PHYSICS. 1. Electronic Radiation: Thermal radiation (diodes, triodes); photoelectric effect; photons; electron beam; cathode rays; ionization; cathode ray oscilloscope; x-rays; natural radiation; electromagnetic waves in summary; particle and wave nature.

CHEMISTRY (2 hrs a wk)

A. GENERAL CHEMISTRY. Compounds and mixtures; elements; the atomic theory (excluding the fundamental laws of Proust, Dalton, Richter, Gay-Lussac); symbol and atomic weight of an element; formula and molecular weight of a compound; nomenclature of compounds; atomic number; gram-atomic weight; gram-molecular weight: Avogadro number; physical law on molecular weight--Avogadro-ampere law; Raoul law; the concept of valency. B. ORGANIC CHEMISTRY. 1. *Introduction*: Definition of an organic compound; qualitative analysis; quantitative analysis; molecular formulas of organic compounds; synthesization of organic compounds; chemistry radicals; functional groups. 2. *Methane*: Saturated hydrocarbons; alkane radical; functional group; petroleum. 3. *Ethylene*: Usaturated acethyl hydrocarbons; alkene radical; functional group. 4. *Ethyl Alcohols*: Alcoholic fermentization; alcoholic radical; classification of primary, secondary, and tertiary alcohols; ethyl aldehyde; aldehyde radical. 5. *Acetone*: Acethol radical; acetic acid; acetic fermentization; radical of organic acids. 6. *Esterization*: Hydrolysis; saponization; fats; fatic acids; soaps; wax; glycerines; benzene; phenols; anilines.

MATHEMATICS (5 hrs a wk) [For Experimental Science Major (A)]

A. ANALYSIS. 1. *Decimal Logarithm*: Definition $y = \log X \Leftrightarrow x = 10^{y}$; logarithm of a product, a quotient, a power function and functions of fractional powers; use of logarithmic table; logarithms and antilogarithms; laws of logarithms; application to numerical evaluation and to solution of equation reducible to a second order; equation. 2. *Trigonometric Functions* (arguments expressed in terms of radians): Limit of $\frac{\sin x}{x}$ as $x \rightarrow 0$; derivatives of sin x, cos x, sin (ax+b) and cos (ax+b); determination of period and graph of the functions $y = \sin(ax+b)$; $y = \cos(ax+b)$. 3. *Integration*: Definition: Integral of a sum; integral of a function of known integral multiplied by a constant; integrals of x" , u'u" (*n* is a rational number other than -1); sin (ax+b) and cos (ax+b), excluding the methods of integration by parts and by change of variables; evaluation of the area under a curve and between two curves (without proofs). 4. *Vectors*: Definition; free and bound vectors; zero vectors; translational vectors; axes; unit vectors; ratio of two parallel vectors; Algebraic value of a vector projected on an axis; Chasles formula; addition of vectors; projection of vectors on an axis; definitions and properties. 5. Plane Coordinates: Orthogonal coordinates; coordinates of a point; components and norm of a vector; equation for a circle. 6. Vector Functions of One Variable (defined by its two components with respect to an orthogonal coordinate system): Vector differentiation; definition, components of the derivative vector; direction and Algebraic value of the derivative vector; formulas of vector differentiation. B. KINETICS. 1. Introduction to Motion: Description of motion by orbital equation and time; dependent equation; diagram of the orbit of motion projected on the abscissa; description of motion by a vector function; parametric equations of motion; Descartes equation of orbit. 2. Velocity Vector: Velocity vector defined as the first derivative vector; given time-dependent equations and orbital equation, determine velocity vector. 3. Acceleration Vector: Acceleration vector defined as the derivative vector; motion of uniform acceleration and deceleration. [Do not discuss normal or tangent components of acceleration vector.] 4. Linear Motion: Direction of motion; motion of uniform acceleration and deceleration; diagram of motion in the abscissa; uniform linear motion. 5. Uniform Circular Motion: Time-dependent equation and orbital equation--velocity and angular velocity; parametric equations; velocity vector and acceleration vector. 6. Sinusoidal Linear Motion: Sinusoidal linear motion with time-dependent equation of the form: $x = a \cos (wt+\phi)$; reduction of equation $x = a \cos (wt+\phi)+b \cos (wt+\theta)$. [Do not discuss Fresnel's graphical method.] C. SETS - PROBABILITY - STATISTICS. 1. Sets: Basic concepts; null set; subset; complementary; intersection; union; difference; product set; meaning of the symbols $\Rightarrow$, $\Leftrightarrow$, $\forall$, $\exists$; groups; permutations; Newton's equality; Pascal's inequality. 2. Probability: Events; sample; universe; the concept of equal chance; definition of probability in terms of percentage; addition formula; multiplication formula; independence between two events. 4. Descriptive Statistics: Arrangement of facts--tables, diagrams (bar diagram, line diagram, pie diagram); frequency distribution--single frequency, class frequency; graphs; histogram; frequency curve; frequency polygon; accumulative frequency; cumulative curve; mean, median, mode; deviations--mean deviation, quartile deviation, standard deviation; linearity--dispersion curves; curve fitting and the method of least squares.

MATHEMATICS (9 hrs a wk) [For Mathematics Major (B)]

A. ALGEBRA. 1. Basic Concepts of Mathematical Logic: Definition of a statement; negation; meaning of the symbols $\wedge$, $\vee$, $\Rightarrow$, $\Leftrightarrow$, $\forall$, $\exists$; inverse statement; methods of verification--induction, deduction. 2. Sets: Basic concepts of sets; null set; subset; set of subsets; complement; intersection; union; difference; product set; ordered pair; ordered element of n dimension (use N, Z, Q, R as examples). 3. Relation: Definition; properties--reflection, symmetry, antisymmetry, translation; equivalent relations--equivalent class, division of a set into equivalent classes; ordered relation. 4. Mapping: Definition, diagram; onto mapping; one-to-one mapping; one-to-one-and-onto mapping; inverse mapping; product of mappings. 5. Internal Laws: Definition; properties; associativity, commutativity; identity element; inverse element; reducible element; distribution of two laws. 6. Basic Structures Group: Definition; properties; subgroup; ring; field--definition, examples; vector space--definition of external laws, definition, examples of vector space. 7. Complex Number: Definition in terms of ordered pairs (x, y); equal; opposite and conjugate complex numbers; addition, subtraction, multiplication, division of complex numbers; complex field; the symbol i; complex number expressed in the form $z = x+iy$; modulus and argument; trigonometric form; De Moivre's formula.

B. ANALYSIS. 1. Real Function of a Variable: A real function defined as a mapping in R; inverse function; limit and continuity; graph, graph of an inverse function; asymtotes--definition, how to find it. 2. Derivative: Derivative of a function and its inverse; differentials--definition, geometric description. 3. Integral: Definition; symbol of an indefinite integral; integral of a sum; integral of a product of a constant and a function of known integral (the function is of the form x^n, $u'u^n$ where n is a rational number other than -1); integral of sin (ax+b) and cos (ax+b). [Do not discuss the methods of change of variables and integration by parts]; geometrical meaning of integral; symbol of a definite integral; formulas to evaluate the area under a curve or between two curves. 4. Neperian Logarithmic Function Log x: Definition; logarithm of a product, a quotient, a power; limit of Log x as $x \to 0$ and $x \to +\infty$; the base e; graphs; derivative of Log u, integral of $u'u^{-1}$. 5. Exponential Function e^x: Exponential function defined as the inverse function of Log x; derivative; graph. 6. Differential Equation: Acceptance of formula to solve the equations $y' = f(x)$; $y'' = f(x)$; $y' = ay$; $y''+w^2y = 0$ with f(x) being a simple function such as a polynomial with integral coefficients, sin (ax+b); cos (ax+b) and a and w being constants. 7. Vectorial Function of a Variable (defined by its two components in a two-dimensional system of coordinates): Vectorial derivative--definition, components of a vectorial derivative, direction and Algebraic value, of a vectorial derivative; formula to find derivatives. C. KINETICS. 1. Introduction to Motion: Orbit; description of motion by orbit; time-dependent equations and diagram of motion on the abscissa; description of motion by a vector function or parametric equations. 2. Velocity Vector: Instantaneous velocity vector defined as the first derivative vector; determination of velocity vector given orbit and time-dependent equation. 3. Acceleration Vector: Instantaneous acceleration vector defined as the second derivative vector; tangential and normal components of accelerator vector; accelerating and decelarating motion. 4. Simple Motions: Linear motion; circular motion; linear sinusoidal motion; reduction of equation of the form $x = a \cos (wt+\phi) + b \cos (wt+\theta)$. D. GEOMETRY/ANALYTICAL GEOMETRY. 1. Vectors: Definition; equal vectors; equivalent vectors; free vectors; addition of vectors; structural properties of an additional group; vectors--structural properties of a vector space; product of the projected component of a vector by a real number. 2. Directional Angles in a Plane: Angles formed by two axes, or two vectors, or two half lines; Chasles formula; angle formed by two lines; middle line; inscribing angles; locus of points substanding a fixed segment under a given directional angle; inscribing tetrahedron; simson line; angle of two curves; properties of an angle of two circles. 3. Cartesian Coordinates: System of coordinates; coordinates of a point; components and norm of a vector; scalar product of two vectors; definition, properties; change of coordinates under a translation and a rotation. 4. Straight Line (in orthogonal coordinates): Equation $ax+bx+c = 0$; $x \cos\theta + y \sin\theta + p = 0$; directional cosines; directional parameters; angle formed by two straight lines; distance of a point from a line; equation of a line; a middle line of the angle formed by two lines. 5. Circles: Geometrical consideration; power of a point with respect to a circle; radical axis; radical center; power difference; orthogonal circles; pencil of circles--definitions, classification; conjugate pencils; directrix of a point with respect to two lines and to a circle; analytical consideration (orthogonal coordinates in a plane); equation of a circle; equation of a tangent to a circle; analytical expression of power; application. 6. Conics: Geometrical consideration--definitions; parabola determined by a focal point and directrix; ellipse and hyperbola determined by two focal points; locus of centers of circles passing a fixed point and tangent to a line or another circle; symmetry; tangent at a fixed point--existence and properties; analytical consideration (orthogonal condinates in a plane)--equation of parabolas defined by the axes of reflection and the tangent at the peak; equations of hyperbolas and ellipse defined by two axes of reflection; equation of asyntotes to a hyperbola; laws of points, whose ratio of distance from a point and a line is a constant; locus of points, the coordinates of which satisfy $Ax^2 + 2Bxy + Cy^2 + 2Dx + 2Ey + F = 0$ (which can be reduced to a simplified form by change of axes). D. POINT TRANSFORMATIONS IN A PLANE. 1. Introduction to Point Transformations: Definition as a mapping in the R^2 space; identity transformation; preservation of shapes; inverse transformation; invertibility; product of transformations; group of transformations. 2. Isometries: Isometry--definition of isometries, definition and determination of isometry; translations--definition, properties, transformations of lines and circles, product of translations, groups of translations; rotations--definition, properties, transformations of lines and circles. 3. Anti-isometries: Definition of anti-isometries; definition of a reflection in a line; product of 2 reflections. 4. Similitudes: Similarity--definition, properties, product of two similarities, group of translational similarities, transformations of lines and circles; congruent transformations--definition, properties, transformations of lines and circles. 5. Inversions: Definition; properties; preservation of angles; product of two co-central inversions; transformations of lines and circles. 6. Transformations in a Complex Plane: $z' = az+b$ (a and b are complex numbers); $z' = \frac{k}{z}$ (k is a real constant); definitions; relationships between types of transformations.

NATURAL SCIENCES (4 hrs a wk; 3 hrs lecture, 1 hr lab) [For Experimental Science Major (A)]

A. LECTURE. 1. Animal Anatomy and Physiology: General Studies--general morphology of a mammal (using white mouse); animal cell--structure and physiology (emphasizing the DNA and RNA in the nucleus); animal main tissues. 2. The Function of Coordination: Bones--structure, chemical composition, calcification and growth, joints; muscular system--kinds of muscles, forms, structures, properties, experimental research on muscle contraction (not the chemical reaction of muscle contraction), muscle energy; the nervous system--nerves tissue, neuron; the cerebro-spinal nervous system--anatomy and physiology of the main parts (not the origin and development of the cerebro-spinal nervous system, but the sensory and motor pathways of the cerebellum and the cerebro-spinal nerve); the vegetative nervous system--sympathetic and parasympathetic; the senses--the eye, sight. 3. The Nutritive Function: Digestion--food (including vitamins); enzymes--general outlines about the digestive tube (do not go into its structure); digestive glands--physiology of digestion (not including the extraction of the digestive juice); absorption of the chyle; circulation--blood and blood groups; anatomy of the circulatory system--the heart and blood vessels (general study only); physiology og blood circulation; lymph--composition, function, circulation; respiration--anatomy of the respiratory system; mechanic, physical, chemical phenomena of the respiratory system; cellular respiration (without mentioning lung capacity, the regulation of respiration, theories on cellular respiration and asphyxia); body temperature--regulation of body temperature; function of the liver. 4. Regulation of Different Organs Functions: Endocrine glands and hormones--thyroid and parathyroid glands; endocrine; pancreas; adrenals; ovaries and testes; pituitary gland; action of the hormones; regulation of the nervous system and the hormones. 6. Animal Physiology: Mammal's reproductive organs--generalities about the reproductive organs; gamchogenesis (reduction of chromosome); fertilization; sex determination; heredity--experimental research about hybridization; mono- and dihybridization, Mendel's Laws; man's heredity (explain heredity in terms of chromosomes, color blindness as an example). B. LABORATORY WORK. Dissect a mouse for general observation of the organs; observation of the animal cell; bone study (make a longitudinal and transversal section of a fresh cow bone); observation of the muscles of a frog; study of the frog muscles' elasticity and contraction; study of a pig's brain; testing the frog's reflex movements; study of the eyes, anatomy of cow's eyes; observation of the blood cells (red and white blood cells) of a frog and of man; observation of a capillary in the membrane of a frog's leg or at the tail of a gold fish; observation of the shape of a pig's heart; dissection.

NATURAL SCIENCES (1 hr a wk) [For Mathematics Major (B)]

A. ANIMAL ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY. 1. Generalities: General structure of a mammal (use a mouse as an example); animal cell--composition, structure,

physiology; principal tissues of an animal. 2. Function of Coordination: The nervous system--nervous tissues, neurons; cerebro-spinal--the spine, the medulla, the brain; the eye and sight. 3. The Nutritive Function: Digestion--food, enzymes, general outlines of the digestive system, digestion, the absorption of chyle; blood--composition and function, coagulation, blood groups.
4. The Endocrines: Thyroid gland; endocrine; pancreas; pituitary gland.
5. General Outline of Animal Reproduction: Composition and structure of the reproductive organs; gametogenesis (formation of gametes); fertilization.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION (3 hrs a wk): Same as 11th Grade.

Second Cycle

12th Grade: Modern Literature Major (Section C) and Classical Literature Major (Section D)

Subjects	MODERN LITERATURE (C) Number of Hours Per Week	CLASSICAL LITERATURE (D) Number of Hours Per Week
Vietnamese	0	0
History	2	2
Geography	1	1
Civic Education	1	1
Philosophy	9	9
First Foreign Languages	6	6
Second Foreign Languages	6	0
Classical Languages	0	6
Physics	½	½
Chemistry	½	½
Mathematics	1	1
Natural Sciences	1	1
Physical Education	3	3
Total	31 hours	31 hours

HISTORY (2 hrs a wk)

A. VIETNAMESE HISTORY (from 1884 to the present). 1. The French Domination: The establishment of the French administration--administrative policy, administrative structure (administrative, legal, economic, financial, educational, security); movements against the French; the Vietnamese society under the French domination--influence of Western civilization, material and spiritual activities. 2. Việt-Nam from 1945 to the present. B. CIVILIZATION OF VIET-NAM. 1. Brief History of Its Foundation: Local basis; influence from China, India, and the West. 2. Activities: Political, economic and social; intellectual. C. WORLD HISTORY (from 1914 up to the present). 1. China from the Tân Hội Revolution to the present. 2. Japan from after the Minh Dynasty to the present. 3. India: Gandhi and the national movement; independence period. 4. The First World War: Cause and consequence. 5. Western World Powers between the Two World Wars: Problems faced by England, France, U.S.; the economic depression of 1929; the dictatorial regimes (Communism in Russia, Nazism in Germany, Fascism in Italy). 6. The Second World War: Cause and consequences. 7. International Relations Since 1945: Development of world blocs; Cold War; role of the United Nations. 8. Civilization and Life of Man after 1945: In scientific and technical fields; in economic, social, cultural, religious fields.

GEOGRAPHY (1 hr a wk)

A. GENERALITIES. 1. Present World Economic Situation: Economic world powers; world markets. B. ECONOMIC BLOCS. 1. The Capitalist Economic Bloc: The U.S.; West Germany; Great Britain; Japan. 2. The Socialist Economic Bloc: The USSR; Red China. 3. The Third Bloc: India; Indonesia.

CIVIC EDUCATION (1 hr a wk)

A. THE NATIONAL POLITICAL STRUCTURE. 1. Free Democratic Regimes: Characteristics; different regimes; political parties. 2. Contemporary Dictatorial Regimes: Causes (political, economic, social); characteristics; forms (Marxism, Fascism). B. INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS. 1. The United Nations: Organization, operation. 2. Regional Organizations: NATO; SEATO; OAS.

PHILOSOPHY (9 hrs a wk)

A. PSYCHOLOGY. 1. Objectives: Nature of psychological phenomena; relationship between psychological and physiological phenomena; perception, sensation; association, memory, imagination, attention; abstraction and generalization, use of symbols; language and ideas; judgment and reasoning; pleasure and suffering, emotion, passion; consciousness, subconsciousness, personality; personalism, instinct, habit, volition, disposition; reason, freedom. B. LOGIC. 1. Basic Principles of Reasoning: Ordinary thinking process--

intuition and reasoning; induction and deduction, analysis and synthesis; science and scientific spirit, science and technique; mathematics--objectives, basis, method, reasoning, use; experimental science--facts, hypothesis, discovery and verifying the laws, principles, theory; some examples of theories in contemporary physics, chemistry, physiology; social studies--psychology, history, sociology. C. ETHICS. 1. The Question of Ethics: Ethics and science; conscience--nature and value; duty and right--responsibility; justice and charity; great concepts of Eastern and Western ethics; ethics and the individual--body and intellect; human dignity--personalism and community; ethics and family life--family, marriage, birth; humanism of Confucianism, benevolence of Buddhism; charity of Christianity. D. GENERAL PHILOSOPHY. 1. Basics: Theory of cognition, basic principles of reasoning; truth; philosophy and science; philosophy and ethics; philosophy and religion; space and time--materialism; life; spirit; freedom--personalism and values; God. 2. Philosophy of the East: Generalities on Confucianism, Taoism, Buddhism. 3. Philosophical Works: Each student should read one book on Philosophy of the East, and one book on Philosophy of the West, to be chosen from: (Phisolophy of the West) Plato: Phedon, Gorgias, the Republic (Phedon, Gorgias, la Republique); Aristotle: Moral at Nicomaque (Morale à Nicomaque); Marc Aurele: Thoughts (Pensées); Descartes: Discourse on Method (Discours de la Méthode); Pascal: Thoughts and Opuscules (Pensées et Opuscules); J.J. Rousseau: Social Contract (le Contrat Social); C.L. Bernard: Introduction to the Study of Experimental Medicine (first part); Bergson: Laughter (Le Rire), Thought and Motive (La Pensées et le Mouvant), The Two Sources of Moral and Religion (Les Deux Sources de la Morale et de la Religion); Emmanuel Mounier: Personalism (Le Personalisme), Introduction to Existentialism (Introduction aux existentialismes); Gabriel Marcel: To Be and To Have (Etre et Avoir). (Philosophy of the East) The Four Letters: Dai Hoc, Trung Dung, Manh Tu, Luan Ngu; Ethics (Dao Duc Kinh); Dharma: Pada, Khoa Hu Luc.

FIRST FOREIGN LANGUAGES (6 hrs a wk)

A. ENGLISH. 1. Grammar: Review rules; emphasize writing style. 2. Reading and Literature: Reading--American civilization; literature--brief study of American literature; supplementary reading--one book of each author. 3. Written

Assignments: Short presentation in English of topics selected by students or by the teacher; essay on common topics; translation. B. FRENCH. 1. French Civilization (4 hrs): Books--Cours de Langue de Civilisation Française (French Civilization, Mauger), Book III; the following 15 lessons: 1. Taxis, 2. Petits Métiers, 3. Parisiens et Provinciaux, 4. Gosses du Palais Royal, 5. Prise de la Bastille, 6. À la cité Universitaire, 7. La Tour Eiffel, 8. Un Grand Magasin, 9. À l'Inprimerie d'un Journal, la nuit, 10. Quand le penple fait grève, 11. Le premier voyage aérien, 12. Expositions, 13. Au Cinéma, 14. Le Zoo de Vincennes, 15. Aéroports de la Banlieue Parisienne. 2. French Literature (2 hrs): 19th Century--Vigny, Verlaine; 20th Century--Saint Exupéry, Duhamel, Colette. 3. Written Assignments: Text study; translation; essays on common topics (description, narration, letter writing).

SECOND FOREIGN LANGUAGES (6 hrs a wk)

A. ENGLISH. English for Today, Book III. B. FRENCH. 1. Vocabulary, Conversation, Reading, Silent reading, Grammar, Dictation from: Cours de Langue de Civilisation Française by Mauger, Book II, Lessons 37-70. 2. Written Assignments: a. First semester: Answer questions based on the reading and the dictation; answer questions relating to the topics studied; build sentences according to patterns; write a paragraph based on a picture, a game, or another paragraph; translate short texts which have been studied. b. Second semeter: Write short essays on common topics (descriptions, narration, letter writing).

CLASSICAL LANGUAGES (6 hrs a wk) [For Classical Literature Major (D) only]

A. SINO-VIETNAMESE. 1. Text Study (3 hrs a wk): Excerpts from Confucius, Mencius, other Chinese and Vietnamese authors. 2. Literature (2 hrs a wk): Teach briefly about the authors during the text study period. 3. Assignments (1 hr a wk): Translate from Chinese into Vietnamese (Kim Cổ Kỹ Quan, Truyễn Kỹ Mạn Lục, Lam Sởn Thuc Lục, Hoàng Lề Nhất Thống Chí). B. LATIN. 1. Review: Grammar; study of poetry rhyme (poetry of 5 and 6 rhymes); general literature. 2. Assignments: Text study; translation. 3. Authors: De Signis, De Natura Deorum (Cicero); De Conjuratione Catilinae (Salbustius); Aeneidos Lib, I.II (Virgilius).

PHYSICS (½ hr a wk)

1. Free Fall in Vacuum: Zero initial velocity. 2. The Fundamental Law of Kinetics: Definition of mass; CGS and MKS units of force; mass and acceleration. 3. Definition of Energy: Definition of potential, kinetic, mechanical energy; other forms of energy--heat, electricity, radiation, chemical. 4. Concertibility of Work and Heat: Convertibility of other forms of energy; law of energy conservation; energy unit--Joule; heat unit--calorie; principles of a four-stroke engine. 5. Pulse: Propagation of a pulse; propagation velocity; sinusoidal motion; propagation of a sinusoidal wave; wave length; experimental study of the super position of two waves--interference; standing waves (only transverse waves are discussed in connection with a fixed obstacle); Young experiment on light interference by two slits; hypothesis about light waves. 6. Electronic Radiation: Photo electric effect; blank body radiation; cathode rays; properties of X-rays; natural radioactive materials; table of electromagnetic radiation; nature of particle and wave.

CHEMISTRY (½ hr a wk)

1. Origin of Formative Chemistry: Shortcomings of a planer chemical formula and the necessity of a formative chemical formula; some concrete examples on formative chemical formulas. 2. Interpretation of Chemical Bond by Wave Mechanics: Atomic shells; molecular shells; simple, double, triple bonds--properties, examples; formative structure of a number of simple molecules--thane, ethylene, acethylene, water. a. Introduction to the History of Organic Synthesis: Man-made and natural compounds; review of the differences between mixtures and compounds; review of atomic theory, covalence; avogadro number; saturated hydrocarbons--review on methane; unsaturated hydrocarbons--ethylene and acethylene; review on ethyl alcohol, acetic acid, benzene; functional groups and radicals.

MATHEMATICS (1 hr a wk)

A. ALGEBRA. 1. Basic Concepts of Mathematical Logic: Definition of a statement; negation; meaning of the symbols: $\wedge$, $\vee$, $\Rightarrow$, $\Leftrightarrow$, $\forall$, $\exists$;

introduction to some methods of verification--induction, deduction. 2. Sets: Definition and example; basic concepts of sets; null set; subset; complement; intersection; union. 3. Probability: Experiment on accidents; the universe; events; definition of probability in percentages; simple examples. B. STATISTICS. 1. Frequancy Distribution: Table; tabulation of facts. 2. Diagrams: Bar diagram, line diagram, pie diagram; frequency polygon. 3. Arithmetic: Definition; the *n*'th term; sum of the first *n* terms. C. GEOMETRIC SERIES. 1. Definition: The *n*'th term; sum of the first *n* terms; sum of the infinite series with the absolute value of being less than 1. 2. Decimal Logarithm: Definition; formula to evaluate logarithm of a product, a quotient, a power of integral exponent. 3. Quadratic Function: Study of the graph of a quadratic function with constant coefficients. [Do not verify the formula to find the peak of the graph.] D. TRIGONOMETRY. Definition of trigonometic function of an angle; relationships among various trigonometric functions of an angle.

NATURAL SCIENCES (1 hr a wk)

A. ANIMAL ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY. 1. Generalities: General structure of a mammal (use a mouse as an example); animal cell--composition, structure, physiology; principal tissues of an animal. 2. Function of Coordination: The nervous system--nerve tissues, neurons; cerebro-spinal--the spine, the medulla, the brain; the eye and sight. 3. The Nutritive Function: Digestion--food, enzymes, general outlines of the digestive system, digestion, the absorption of chyle; blood--composition and function, coagulation, blood groups. 4. The Endocrines: Thyroid gland, endocrine; pancreas; pituitary gland. 5. General Outline of Animal Reproduction: Composition and structure of the reproductive organs; gametogenesis (formation of gametes); fertilization.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION (3 hrs a wk): Same as 11th Grade.

APPENDIX D

A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF ESL TEACHING MATERIALS: K-12

I. K-6

A. ESL structure texts

BUMPASS, Faye L. The New We Learn English. New York: American Book Co., 1968-69. Five books, $1.30-$1.40 each.

Elementary.
Series in workbook format for primary students. Audio-lingual approach with limited vocabulary (858) to develop basic language skills. Games and songs included, and flash cards available. Teacher editions for each book. Teacher manual, about $1.80.

BUMPASS, Faye L. We Speak English. New York: American Book Co. (Division of Litton Educational Publishing, Inc.), 1967. Book I, $2.00; Book II, $2.00. Paperback.

Upper elementary.
Can be used as a continuation of The New We Learn English, or as beginning books (material contained in the lower elementary series is reviewed in We Speak English). Teachers' editions available.

GONZALEZ-MENA, Janet. English Experiences. Silver Spring, Md.: Institute of Modern Languages, 1975. $29.95 for Teacher's Program Guide and 50 spirit masters sets.

Pre-Elementary.
Consists of 50 "experiences" designed primarily to develop cognitive, affective, perceptual and motor skills in pre-school and kindergarten children while teaching English. The program consists of two components: a detailed and comprehensive book of lesson plans for the teacher and a children's activity book in spirit Duplicating Master form. Designed originally for Spanish-speaking children, so some cultural conversion of materials may be necessary.

KERNAN, Doris. Steps to English. New York: McGraw Hill, 1974-76. A & B, I-IV. About $3.

K-6 series.
A & B are pre-reading, I-IV incorporate reading. Teachers' editions, workbooks, cue cards and tape cassettes are available.

MARQUARDT, William F., Jean H. Miller, and Eleanore Hosman. English Around the World. Glenview, Illinois: Scott Foresman, 1970. Pupils' Skills Books (Levels 1 through 6): $1.68-$2.00. Paperback.

Elementary, all levels.
A complete six-level course, very effective if the teacher reads and follows the guide. Especially suitable for teachers with no special training in ESL. Levels 1 and 2 have recently been revised. Activities books with supplemental tests (levels 1 and 2), practice pad and test book (level 3), display cards (levels 1-3), word cards (levels 2 and 3), record albums (levels 1 and 2), posters and teachers' guidebooks available.

B. Supplemental materials

ALEXANDER, L.G. Look, Listen and Learn! An Integrated Course for Children. London: Longman, 1968-70. Four books, $3.00 to $4.00 each.

Elementary through intermediate.

A four-stage audio-visual course for beginning students age 9 and above. Texts, workbooks, structured readers, link readers, film strips, and tapes. Seven workbooks, $1.50 to $1.75 each, and eight readers, $0.75 to $1.25 each.

DYKSTRA, Gerald, Project Director. Composition: Guided — Free. New York: Columbia Teachers College Press, 1973. Four programs, $1.00 each.

Intermediate.

Not designed as ESL materials, but usable as composition supplement to an ESL program for grades 1-6. Composition through practice with model passages. Progressive development of writing skills. Four programs, somewhat overlapping, for students in primary grades. Teacher's manual.

HAUPTMAN, Philip and John Upshur. Fun With English. New York: Macmillan, 1973. $1.75.

Intermediate.

A supplementary text designed for ages 10 and above, to be used with basic ESL course at intermediate level. Learning puzzles and games which test vocabulary, reading comprehension. Crossword puzzles, anagrams, word games, "mystery" stories. Teacher's Answer Key and Guide.

ROBINETT, Ralph F., Paul W. Bell, and Pauline M. Rojas. Miami Linguistic Readers. D.C. Heath, 1970. About $.88 per reader. Paperback.

Lower elementary. Two groups of attractive, colorfully illustrated books graded in difficulty, appealing to students through junior high, as well as the first and second graders they were designed for. First group (Big Book I) is a reading readiness unit. Teacher's manual and Seatwork book available for each reader; charts for Big Book I and II, placement tests, and a classroom kit (including word, phrase and sentence strips, hand puppets and a 12-inch, 33-1/3 record) are also available. Not specifically for ESL, but adaptable.

II. 7-12

A. ESL structure texts

HALL, Eugene J., et al. Orientation in American English. Silver Spring, Md.: Institute of Modern Languages, 1971-72. Six student textbooks, $3.00 each. Four workbooks, $2.00 each. Cassettes for first 4 levels, $45.00-$55.00 each set.

Beginning through advanced.

An integrated set of materials — texts, workbooks, tapes, and graded readers — using "Situational Reinforcement" to train students to assimilate vocabulary and structure in context of everyday experiences in America. Works toward immediate use of English in meaningful communication. Avoids intensive drill-work. Each level requires 80-100 hours of instruction. Teacher's manual available, but ESL training is desirable.

MELLGREN, Lars, and Michael Walker. New Horizons in English. Addison-Wesley. Student books, about $2.50 each. Paperback.

New series for high school students and above, to teach elementary and intermediate English. Text is based extensively on two- and four-color drawings, which provide material for drills as well as conversation. Workbook, teacher's guide and cassette tapes are available for each of the six books in the series. Teacher's guides have detailed notes for the teacher inexperienced in ESL, and suggestions for experienced teachers also. There are sections in each unit of the student books which the student can do on his own, or in small groups.

SLAGER, Wm. R., Project Director. English For Today, 2nd Ed. New York: McGraw Hill, 1972. Books I-VI, about $4.50 each. Paperback.

Newly-revised edition of a series which has been used extensively in secondary school programs. The six books take the student up to a full command of spoken and written English. Detailed teachers' manuals are available, as is a set of picture cue cards for Book I. Writing is introduced early, and controlled composition exercises continue throughout the books.

WARDHAUGH, Ronald, et al. English for a Changing World. Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1976. Six levels planned, four levels available now, $2.34 each.

Elementary through advanced.

A new comprehensive ESL course in six levels (first four now available) for secondary school students and young adults. Carefully sequenced, structured materials develop comprehension and speaking skills and introduce reading and writing at an early stage. Presents informal, natural English in a situational approach. Detailed annotated teacher's edition, $4.20 each level. Exercise, cue books, and cassettes available.

B. Supplemental texts

1. Reading and writing

BODMAN, Jean, and Michael Lanzano. No Hot Water Tonight. New York: Collier Macmillan International. $3.95. Paperback.

High school or older. Reader to accompany any beginning text, with structure carefully controlled. Vocabulary is more extensive than in most beginning readers; the authors feel that words necessary for survival in cities ought to be taught whether they are on basic word lists or not. The reading material follows the experiences of a group of people living in a tenement in a big city. Comprehension, structure and vocabulary exercises accompany each lesson. Especially useful for the teacher with no special ESL experience, and can be used by students independently of the teacher. Subject matter includes crucial cultural material like explanations of retail installment credit agreements, schedules, etc.

DOTY, Gladys, and Janet Ross. Language and Life in the U.S.A., 3rd ed. New York: Harper and Row, 1973. Vol. I, $5.95; Vol. II, $2.95. Paperback.

Vol. I, Communicating in English, contains comprehension, grammar, pronunciation and writing exercises to help intermediate level students to understand spoken English and use English in speaking and writing. Useful appendices at end of book, also tear-out worksheets. Vol. II, Reading English, contains seventeen original readings on various aspects of American life which are excellent for newcomers; each reading is accompanied by word study, reading suggestions, and exercises. Books are rich in material, both cultural and linguistic, and can be used in a variety of programs for those who have some knowledge of English.

JARAMILLO, Barbara L. Conventions in the Mechanics of Writing: A Language Laboratory Manual for Foreign Students. Pittsburgh: English Language Institute, University of Pittsburgh, 1971. $3.50.

Thirty lessons in punctuation and the mechanics of writing, for the beginning or intermediate student. Student listens to a taped lesson, then does a taped exercise. Tapes and cassettes necessary and available, cost about $50 per set.

MATTHEWS, Patricia E. and Sabahat Tura. Practice, Plan and Write, Books I and II. New York: American Book Co., 1973. $2.10 per book.

Two separate volumes intended to form a complete course in writing for ESL students at the low-intermediate level in high school, college or adult education programs. Model paragraphs are used for imitation, grammatical explanations in block form. Exercises provide supplementary oral and/or written practice. Some attention to punctuation, simple rhetoric. Teacher's guide and key available.

PAULSTON, Christina and Gerald Dykstra. Controlled Composition in English as a Second Language. New York: Regents, 1973. $1.95.

English composition is taught through a series of structured exercises which are appropriate for the advanced intermediate to advanced ESL student on the high school level or above. Model paragraphs are unabridged original English. Appendix contains list of rules used in the text. Designed to prepare students for college writing.

PIMSLEUR, Paul and Donald Berger. Encounters: A Basic Reader. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1974. $4.50. Paperback.

Collection of simplified newspaper articles originally designed for disadvantaged students, but useful for students of ESL. Effective on junior and senior high school levels, can also be used in adult education classes. Basic vocabulary of 1400 words, lots of photographs. Exercises in vocabulary and structure accompany each article.

2. Pronunciation and conversation

DOBSON, Julia M. and Frank Sedwick. Conversation in English: Points of Departure. New York: American Book Co., 1975. $3.00. Paperback.

Designed for conversation as well as oral or written composition on the high elementary, intermediate or advanced level. Fifty scenes, with artists' renderings, are grouped arbitrarily and cut across many social strata, covering as many everyday situations as possible. Included in each unit are a drawing, topically related vocabulary list, questions on the drawing, points of departure for drawing students' own ideas out, and a list of topics for composition. The units may be studied in any order, thus offering maximum flexibility for various classroom situations.

NILSEN, Don and Allen Pace Nilsen. Pronunciation Contrasts in English. New York: Regents, 1971. $2.25. Paperback.

For all levels. Presents pronunciation exercises by problem, dealing with particular problems (like lack of /b/ - /v/ contrast) ESL students are likely to have. For each problem there are minimal pairs, minimal contrast sentences, and pronunciation exercises. Each lesson has a list of problem-area language backgrounds. Useful to teachers of Vietnamese students in that problems common to, and particular to, Vietnamese speakers can be dealt with specifically. Useful to the teacher with no special background in phonetics, as there is a glossary of special terminology, charts which show the position of the lips, tongue, etc., and sound locator charts.

SOUTHEAST ASIAN REGIONAL ENGLISH PROJECT. English For Vietnamese Speakers. Arlington, Va.: ERIC. Vol. I: Pronunciation.

Concentrates on areas of pronunciation that are especially troublesome for Vietnamese speakers. For information on ordering, contact ERIC User Services, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1611 North Kent Street, Arlington, Va. 22209.

3. Vocabulary

BARNARD, Helen. Advanced English Vocabulary. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1971. About $4.50 per book.

Series of seven workbooks (books 4A and 4B will be published soon) which teach the second and third thousand most common non-technical English words used in lectures, seminars, textbooks, newspapers, journals, radio and television. Each workbook contains the vocabulary to be learned and a vocabulary-completion test (which the student can correct himself). Each new word is introduced in context and is repeated a minimum of ten times throughout the workbooks. Series assumes a knowledge of the first thousand words, so is suitable for intermediate students. Can be used in programs for students of all ages.

HORNBY, A.S. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English, New Edition. New York: Oxford University Press, 1974. $8.95. Hardback.

Universally used and respected dictionary for ESL students. 50,000 illustrative phrases and sentences. Every aspect of the dictionary is carefully designed to meet the needs of the ESL student. A lengthy introduction which explains how to use the dictionary; an extremely practical, useful guide to pronunciation; appendices of such aspects of English as irregular verbs, affixes, and geographical names; and attention throughout to providing contextual information all combine with other features to make the dictionary the most useful work available to the student.

McCALLUM, George P. Idiom Drills: For Students of English as a Second Language. New York: Crowell, 1970. $2.50.

For intermediate students in high school and above. Contains a series of exercises (six units, five lessons in each unit) designed to teach 180 useful everyday idioms. At the end of each unit is a reading incorporating the idioms taught in the unit. The idioms are taught through dialogues, substitution drills and homework.

AIDS FOR TEACHERS

BURT, Marina L. and Carol Kiparsky. The Gooficon: A Repair Manual for English. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1972. $4.95. Paperback.

Sampling of ESL student errors arranged according to structure, and suggestions as to correcting them. Samples were gathered from students with various backgrounds.

CENTER FOR APPLIED LINGUISTICS, Vietnamese Refugee Education Series. Arlington, Va.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1975.

(1) English-Vietnamese Phrasebook with Useful Word List (for Vietnamese speakers). A survival phrasebook and mini-dictionary (Vietnamese-English and English-Vietnamese), designed to meet the immediate language needs of refugees upon their resettlement. $3.00. Cassettes available ($13.00).

(2) Vietnamese-English Phrasebook with Useful Word List (for English speakers). Intended as a guide for Americans to simplified Vietnamese. Easy-to-follow pseudo-phonetic transcription. One-way (English-Vietnamese) mini-dictionary included. $2.00. Cassette available ($6.00).

(3) A Handbook for Teachers of Vietnamese Students: Hints for Dealing with Cultural Differences in Schools. Cross-cultural comparisons between Vietnamese and American school environments. Suggestions to teachers to help reduce possible culture shock for Vietnamese students. $1.00.

(4) A Selected Annotated Bibliography for Teaching English to Speakers of Vietnamese. $1.50.

(5) A Personnel Resources Directory for the Education of Vietnamese Refugees. Abstracts on available Vietnamese and American educators, including experts who can offer technical assistance to school districts. $1.00.

(6) A Colloquium on the Vietnamese Language. Presented at the Center for Applied Linguistics on July 15, 1975. References to contrastive features between Vietnamese and English. 45-minute presentation on phonology and syntax; 45-minute question and answer period. $6.50 for cassette tape and handout.

To order, write to Center for Applied Linguistics (Use series numbers listed above). Center address: 1611 North Kent St., Arlington, VA 22209. Make checks payable to the Center for Applied Linguistics.

CHASTIAN, Kenneth. Developing Second Language Skills: Theory to Practice. 2nd ed. Chicago, Ill.: Rand, 1975. $9.95.

Discussion of linguistic theory and practical implications. Annotated bibliography.

Chicago Board of Education, Department of Curriculum. Suggested Activities for Non-English Speaking Children: An Approach to Curriculum Development Involving Bilingual Community Writers. Chicago, 1970.

Series of curriculum guides developed for classroom teacher to aid in the instruction of non-English speaking children. The materials were initially developed for Spanish speaking children but can be easily adapted to any non-English background by supplying appropriate vocabulary and cultural references.

DOBSON, Julia M. Effective Techniques for English Conversation Groups. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1974. $3.95.

Practical guidance for ESL teacher to help students move from drill to meaningful oral communication. Contains a variety of proven techniques for stimulating conversation.

FINOCCHIARO, Mary. English as a Second Language: From Theory to Practice. New York: Regents, 1974. $3.25. Paperback.

Newly revised practical guide to curriculum planning, lesson planning, adaptation of materials and language testing. Discusses specific techniques for teaching pronunciation, grammar, reading and writing. Appendix contains useful definitions, an extensive bibliography.

LEE, W.R. Language-Teaching Games and Contests. New York: Oxford, 1965. $1.70.

Elementary to intermediate.
Simple games and activities to supplement ESL classwork.

PHILLIPS, Nina. Conversational English for the Non-English-Speaking Child. New York: Columbia Teachers College Press, 1968. $3.50.

Instructional manual and reference guide for inexperienced ESL teachers. Offers practical guidance in classroom/tutoring techniques.

RIVERS, Wilga M. Speaking in Many Tongues: Essays in Foreign-Language Teaching. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1972. Paperback.

Collection of 11 articles written between 1968 and 1972, on various aspects of foreign-language teaching. Indexed by subject for easy reference. Good, practical articles useful to the language teacher whatever his background.

SAVILLE-TROIKE, Muriel. Foundations for Teaching English as a Second Language. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1976. $6.95. Paperback.

Brand-new discussion of the linguistic, psychological and cultural aspects of teaching English as a foreign language. Of special use to the teacher with no special training in ESL are chapters on survival skills for teachers and students, the role of ESL in bilingual education, strategies for instruction, and preparation for teaching.

STEVICK, Earl W. Helping People Learn English — A Manual for Teachers of English as a Second Language. Nashville, Tenn.: Abingdon Press, 1957. $3.00.

A brief (130-page) guide for the non-professional teacher. It includes teaching strategies, discussion of particular grammatical points and includes useful discussion of sound formation. A very helpful and practical guide for the teacher inexperienced in ESL.

STEVICK, Earl W. Memory, Meaning and Method: Some Psychological Perspectives on Language Learning. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1976. $5.95. Paperback.

This book is an examination of some of the psychological dimensions of language learning, both in terms of language retention and the inter-personal relationships of the classroom situation. Stevick, using a basic transactional analysis point of view, looks at several teaching/learning methodologies, including The Silent Way and Community Language Learning. The book, which is intended primarily for the experienced ESL practitioner, includes a lengthy bibliography.

THOMAS, Myra H. et al. Books Related to Adult Basic Education and Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages. National Center for Educational Communication (DHEW/OE), Washington, D.C., 1970. $.30.

This is a two-part bibliography of recently received textbooks and professional resources in the Educational Materials Center. The bibliography on adult basic education lists publications received between September 1968 and May 1970 for teaching adults the first essential skills of reading, writing, arithmetic, community living, and citizenship. Only materials specifically developed for adult basic education are included. Performance levels of materials listed range from 0 through seventh or eighth grade; however, seventh- and eighth-grade materials are included only if they are part of a sequential program beginning within the elementary grade range. All materials related to teaching English to speakers of other languages published in the United States since 1965 and received in the Center through 1970 are included in the second part of the bibliography. Available from Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. (#HE 5.213:13039)

THONIS, Eleanor. Teaching Reading to Non-English Speakers. New York: Collier Macmillan, Inc., 1970. $3.95. Paperback.

Designed for teachers in bicultural/bilingual programs, but the second part of the book, which deals with teaching English as a second Language, is useful to teachers of Vietnamese students. Detailed examination of the various ways of teaching reading to ESL students, and a practical guide to the teacher including suggestions for classroom activities.

VALLETE, Rebecca M. Modern Language Testing: A Handbook. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1967. $4.95. Paperback.

Especially useful handbook for teachers. Contains principles and procedures for test construction, administration and scoring. Contains sample test items (from various languages) and practical suggestions to test language skills, culture and literature.

APPENDIX E

Indochinese Refugee Education Guides

#2

GENERAL INFORMATION SERIES: Testing English Language Proficiency

This three-part paper consists of A) a bibliography of tests; B) a bibliography about testing; and C) principles for test construction and administration. The bibliographies are designed to present some of the available testing materials and discussions of testing for your consideration. They are by no means exhaustive; rather, we have selected readily available materials, which, we feel, will be of maximum value to the classroom teacher. Thus, we have not included papers of an esoteric or highly technical nature, nor have we included tests requiring specially trained administrators or correctors.

While all of the test instruments have been annotated, only one of the texts, that by David P. Harris, has been. For the most part, the title of the paper adequately indicates the content. However, in the case of Professor Harris' book, a full annotation was made, largely to acquaint the reader with the potential of this work.

It should be remembered that, while these tests can be useful as indicators, they should not be given more importance than they have. That is, the administrators and evaluators of the tests must bear in mind that an individual's performance on any given test, taken on any given day may be very different on another day or with another test. Use the test results with discretion.

In addition to the two bibliographies, we have included a brief guide for the construction and administration of tests. If you decide that you wish to write your own test, this list should prove helpful.

A reminder: If your own local municipal or university library does not have the journal or book in which you are interested, ask the librarian if the journal may be obtained through the inter-library loan system.

Inclusion on this bibliography, of course, does not constitute an endorsement of any item, nor does it constitute an endorsement of any theoretical orientation.

ACRONYM	LEVELS TESTED														
	Pre-K	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	→
1. APELL	■	■	■												
2. Boehm		■	■	■											
3. CAT			■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
4. CELT											■	■	■	■	■
5. Diag. Test ESL											■	■	■	■	■
6. Ilyin									■	■	■	■	■	■	■
6a Ilyin Struc.									■	■	■	■	■	■	■
7. Inter-Amer.	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
8. SWCEL	■	■	■	■											
9. TOGA	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
10. OPT									■	■	■	■	■	■	■
11. Michigan Test											■	■	■	■	■
12. Tx.Child Mig. Prog.		■	■	■	■	■									
SUBTOTAL	4	6	7	6	4	4	3	3	6	6	9	9	9	9	8

ASSESSMENT PROGRAM OF EARLY LEARNING LEVELS (APELL)

E.V. Cochran & J. Shannon
Edcodyne Corporation
Suite 935
1 City Boulevard West
Orange, California 92668 (1969)

Grade Range: Pre K-1

Administer to: Groups

Time: 40 minutes (2 sessions)

Languages: English, Spanish

REMARKS: A non-verbal test for identifying educational deficiencies at early childhood levels. The APELL test yields 16 scores: 4 Pre-Reading (visual & audial discrimination, letter names & total); 4 Pre-Math (attributes, number concepts & facts & total); 7 Language (nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, plurals, prepositions & total); and 1 Total Score. The Manual gives norms for Total Score only. It may be administered in any language.

Cost: $35.00 for teacher's manual, student's manual and 35 response cards.

BOEHM TEST OF BASIC CONCEPTS

A.E. Boehm
Psychological Corporation
304 East 45th St.
New York, N.Y. 10017 (1969)

Grade Range: K-2

Administer to: Individuals or Small Groups

Time: 30 minutes

Languages: English, Spanish

REMARKS: This is a picture test designed to appraise mastery of basic concepts commonly found in early childhood instructional materials. These concepts are essential to understanding oral communications from teachers and other children. It is designed as both a diagnostic and remedial or teaching instrument; the Boehm identifies the particular concepts that are unknown to children for use as the focus of instruction.

Cost: $6.50 for directions, key and class record form - 30.

CALIFORNIA ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

E.W. Tiegs & W.W. Clark CTB/McGraw-Hill Del Monte Research Park Monterey, Calif. 93940	or	CTB/McGraw-Hill Order Service Center Manchester Road Manchester, Mo. 63011

Grade Range: 1-12

Administer to: Groups

Time: 1-3 hours

Languages: English

REMARKS: Designed to measure educational achievement and provide an individual analysis of a child's learning difficulties, the CAT consists of three sections: Reading, Arithmetic and Language. The skills assessed by this battery include Reading Vocabulary, Reading Comprehension, Arithmetic Reasoning, Arithmetic Fundamentals, and Mechanics of English and Spelling.

Order form A - Pre-test; or
B - Post-test

Grade:			
	1.5-2	CAT-70-H/S-1	$11.55 for 35
	2-4	CAT-70-H/S-2	11.55 for 35
	4-6	CAT-70-3	15.40 for 35
	6-9	CAT-70-5	15.40 for 35

COMPREHENSIVE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEST (CELT)

D.P. Harris and L.A. Palmer
McGraw-Hill International Book Company/48
1221 Avenue of the Americas
New York, New York 10020

Grade Range: High School - Adult

Administer to: Groups

Time: 2 hours

Language: English

REMARKS: Designed to assess the English language proficiency of non-native speakers, the CELT provides a series of easy-to-administer tests, especially appropriate for intermediate and advanced high school, college and adult English as a Second Language courses. The CELT consists of three multiple-choice tests, Listening, Structure and Vocabulary, which may be used separately or as a complete battery. (cont.)

All the CELT tests use a separate answer sheet and a reuseable test booklet.

The listening test measures the ability to comprehend short statements, questions and dialogues as spoken by native speakers of English; it contains 50 items and takes about 40 minutes. The structure test has a total of 75 items to be answered in 45 minutes and measures the ability to manipulate the grammatical structures occurring in spoken English. The vocabulary test contains 75 items and requires 35 minutes to administer. It assesses the understanding of the kinds of lexical items which occur in advanced English reading.

Cost:	a)	Listening test-specimen set	$ 3.00
		complete with tapes	20.00
	b)	Structure specimen	2.50
		Structure test, complete	10.50
	c)	Vocabulary specimen	2.50
		Vocabulary, complete	10.50
	d)	100 answer sheets	4.00

DIAGNOSTIC TEST FOR STUDENTS OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

A.L. Davis
McGraw-Hill International Book Company
1221 Avenue of the Americas
New York, New York 10020

Grade Range: High School - Adult

Administer to: Groups

Time: 60 minutes

Language: English

REMARKS: This test is designed to assess knowledge of English structure and idiomatic vocabulary through 150 multiple-choice questions. The test can be used to determine whether special instruction is necessary; to place students in classes of different levels of proficiency; or to aid in the preparation of lesson plans. The instruction sheet which accompanies the test booklets and answer sheets contains a short section on scoring and interpretation.

Cost: $3.50 for test booklets and answer sheets.

ILYIN ORAL INTERVIEW

Donna Ilyin
Newbury House Publishers
68 Middle Road
Rowley, Mass. 01969

Grade Range: 7 - Adult

Administer to: Individuals

Time: 5-30 minutes

Language: English

REMARKS: Designed to test a student's ability to use English orally in response to hearing it, in a controlled situation. The Interview may be used to place incoming students in an appropriate level English as a Second Language class; to show achievement gains in a pre/post-test situation; or to correlate an individual's oral proficiency with his performance on tests that require reading or writing skills. The interview consists of 50 items, progressing from simpler to more difficult. Each item is scored for accuracy of information and accuracy of structure, including word order, verb structure and other structures; pronunciation and fluency are not scored.

Cost: Manual and test book: $14.50
Answer pad of 50 sheets: $1.95

ENGLISH LANGUAGE STRUCTURE TESTS

D. Ilyin and J. Best
Newbury House Publishers
68 Middle Road
Rowley, Mass. 01969

Grade Range: 7 - Adult

Administer to: Individuals

Time: 30 minutes

Language: English

REMARKS: 6 tests of English structure which can be correlated with the Ilyin Interview tests for placement of students. Two forms each of Beginning, Intermediate and Advanced tests.

Cost: Tests - $2.95; 50 Answer Sheets w/Key - $3.95

INTER-AMERICAN SERIES

H.T. Manuel
Guidance Testing Associates
6516 Shirley Ave.
Austin, Texas 78752

Grade Range: Pre K-13

Administer to: Groups

Time: 14-52 minutes

Languages: English, Spanish, French, Italian

REMARKS: This battery of tests includes: Test of General Ability; Test of Reading; Comprehension of Oral Language; Reading and Numbers; Inventory of Interests; the CIA (Cooperative Inter-American) Tests of General Ability; CIA tests of Reading; CIA Language Usage Test; CIA Natural Sciences and CIA Social Studies. The tests are published in all four languages and the children can be tested in their native language (for francophone bilinguals). Oral Language Test: Short test designed to estimate the child's ability to understand simple words or phrases read to him in English. Group-administered, it takes about 20 minutes. The child marks a picture in response to the expression read by the teacher.

Cost: Contact Guidance Testing Associates for price information.

SWCEL TEST OF ORAL ENGLISH PRODUCTION

Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory
229A Truman N.E.
Albuquerque, N.M. 87108

Available from: ERIC Document Reproduction Service
P.O. Box 0
Bethesda, Maryland 20014
Ref: ED 042-793

Grade Range: Pre K-2

Administered to: Individuals

Time: 10-15 minutes

Language: English

REMARKS: Designed to evaluate English as a second language programs, this test was specifically designed to test children in the primary grades. While pronunciation and vocabulary items are included, the test's major emphasis is on grammatical competence, measured in responses elicited in a "spontaneous" manner by the administrator. No special skills required to administer the test, just the manual and the kit of props, pictures, etc. The conversation is tape-recorded and sent to the SWCEL where it is scored by trained individuals.

Cost: Information not available.

TESTS OF GENERAL ABILITY (TOGA)

J.C. Flanagan
Science Research Associates
259 East Erie St.
Chicago, Illinois 60611

Grade Range: K-12

Administered to: Groups

Time: 45 minutes

Language: English

REMARKS: Designed for use in K-12, the TOGA provide a non-verbal measure of general intelligence and basic learning ability. The scores are said to reflect ability independent of school-acquired skills, and therefore the TOGA are particularly useful for students from culturally different backgrounds.

Cost:	K-2	pack of 25 answer books:	$ 6.30	
	2-4	pack of 25 answer books:	6.30	
	4-6	pack of 25 answer books:	8.30	(reusable)
	6-9	pack of 25 answer books:	8.30	(reusable)
	9-12	pack of 25 answer books:	8.30	(reusable)
		100 answer sheets	10.50	
		stencils	.67	

ORAL PLACEMENT TEST AND ORAL PRODUCTION TESTS

R. Poczik
Bureau of Basic Continuing Education
State Education Department
Albany, N.Y. 12224

(cont.)

Grade Range: 7-Adult

Administered to: Individuals

Time: 5-10 minutes

Language: English

REMARKS: The Oral Placement Test is designed to place students in one of three ESL levels. The test is totally oral, consisting of 15 question-answer items, and suggested questions for a brief "free" conversation. The measure yields scores for Auditory Comprehension; Oral Production and Conversation. The Production Tests are based on the Orientation in America Series and may be inappropriate if other texts are used. These tests are used to evaluate the students' oral achievement with regard to curriculum covered. Each test has a question-answer section and a free conversation section with an oral rating scale. The test format could be adapted to other texts by substituting the questions from whichever text is in use.

Cost: Free of charge.

MICHIGAN TEST OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

J. Upshur & J. Harris, et al
English Language Institute
The University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, Michigan

Available from:
Follett's Michigan Bookstore
322 South State St.
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48108

Grade Range: 9-Adult

Administer to: Groups

Time: 75 minutes

Language: English

REMARKS: This test consists of three parts: Grammar, Vocabulary and Reading Comprehension. It can be used diagnostically for placement, or as a post-test to see how much the student has learned. The test consists of 100 items: 40 in the grammar section, 40 in the vocabulary and 20 in reading comprehension. (cont.)

It is totally non-verbal. Some of the grammar items in Form D appear stilted, but this fault has been corrected in the E Form of the test.

Cost: $8.00: 1 form: 20 copies, 100 answer sheets, 1 manual, 1 stencil

---

TEXAS CHILD MIGRANT PROGRAM TESTS

Oral Language Committee
Migrant and Preschool Programs
Texas Education Agency
201 East Eleventh Street
Austin, Texas 78701

Grade Range: K-3

Administer to: Individuals and Small Groups

Languages: English, Spanish, adaptable to others

REMARKS: This series is the result of the work of the Texas Education Agency, which tried to establish a series of pre-/post-tests designed to test the communication skills and concept-retention of children from linguistically different backgrounds. The tests are easily administered, using readily available props, and ask the child to tell a story, engage in a conversation, etc. Each pre-test is also designed to test retention of the concepts taught the year before. The Performance Objectives Manual includes a cogent discussion of the theoretical (linguistic, social and ethical) bases of the tests, as well as a narrative description of the levels of fluency. The tests appear to be easily adaptable for use with a variety of students in a variety of situations.

Cost: The test is being deposited into the ERIC system, hence, only ERIC's reproduction costs would have to be paid.

B: Bibliography About Testing

1. Harris, David P., Testing English as a Second Language, McGraw-Hill, N.Y., 1969, 151 pp. $3.50.

   This concise book explains clearly the rationale for testing, as well as explaining how to construct tests, administer them, and interpret tham. Because his work focuses primarily on the teaching of English as a second language, Professor Harris discusses different types of questions to use when testing grammar, vocabulary, reading comprehension, writing and speaking. Equally important, however, the classroom teacher with little testing experience will find the discussion of the more technical side of testing useful. Harris shows how to compute means, medians, standard deviations, test reliability, etc., and discusses ways in which the teacher can effectively interpret these figures. While specifically geared to the needs of the teacher of English as a second language, Professor Harris' book will prove useful to any teacher required to set or interpret tests.

2. Allen, Virginia French, "Toward a Thumb-Nail Test of English Competence", in Papers on Language Testing, 1967-1974, edited by Leslie Palmer and Bernard Spolsky, TESOL, Washington, D.C., 1975.*

3. Clark, John L.D., Foreign Language Testing: Theory and Practice, The Center for Curriculum Development, Inc., Philadelphia, Pa., 1972, 174 pp.

4. Daniels, Alan, "Language Proficiency Testing and the Syllabus", in Testing in 2nd Language Teaching, ed by Maureen Concannon O'Brien, University of Dublin Press, Dublin, Ireland, 1974, pp. 18-26.

5. Foreign Service Institute, "A Checklist for Self-Appraisal of Speaking Proficiencies", School of Language Studies, Arlington, Va., undated.

6. Ilyin, Donna, "Structure Placement Tests for Adults in English Second Language Programs in California" in Papers on Language Testing, 1967-1974.

7. Oller, John, "A Cloze Test of English Prepositions" in Papers on Language Testing, 1967-1974.

8. Plaister, Theodor H., "Testing Aural Comprehension; A Culture-Fair Approach", in Papers on Language Testing, 1967-1974.

9. Rand, Earl, "A Short Test of Oral English Proficiency", Language Learning, Vol. 13, No. 3.

10. Robinson, Peter, "Oral Expression Test" in English Language Teaching, Vol. 25, No. 5, 1970.

---

* Papers on Language Testing, 1967-1974 is available from TESOL, 455 Nevils Building, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C., at $6.50 to non-TESOL members and $5.00 to members.

11. Robinson, Peter, "Testing the 2nd Language Competence of Children & Adults", paper presented at the 4th Annual Conference of IATEFL, London, 1971.

12. Spolsky, Bernard, et al, "Three Functional Tests of Oral Proficiency", in Papers on Language Testing, 1967-1974.

13. Spolsky, Bernard, et al, "Preliminary Studies in the Development of Techniques for Testing Overall Second Language Proficiency", in Language Learning, Spec. Issue #3, 1968, pp. 77-102.

14. Spolsky, Bernard, "Language Testing -- The Problem of Validation", in Papers on Language Testing, 1967-1974.

15. Upshur, John A., "Objective Evaluation of Oral Proficiency in the ESOL Classroom", Papers on Language Testing, 1967-1974.

16. Upshur, John A., "Cross-Cultural Testing: What to Test", Language Learning, Vol. XVI, Nos. 3 & 4, pp. 183-196.

17. Upshur, John A., "Testing Foreign Language Functions in Children", TESOL Quarterly, Vol. 1, #4, pp. 31-34.

18. Valette, Rebecca, Modern Language Testing: A Handbook, Harcourt, Brace & World, N.Y., 1967.

19. White, Ronald, "Communicative Competence, Register and 2nd Language Teaching", International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, Vol. 12, No. 2, 1974, pp. 127-142.

C: Principles for Test Construction and Administration

1. First, decide what you want to test. If, for example, you wish to test vocabulary, but your test uses written stimuli, you may be testing reading skills more than vocabulary. For an oral test, use oral or pictoral stimuli. However, if you must use written stimuli try to place the vocabulary item into a context:

    1. The cat is agile. "Agile" means about the same as:

        a. clumsy
        b. quick
        c. yellow
        d. graceful

2. If you use pictoral stimuli, keep from being culture bound. Ask yourself "Does this picture mean the same thing to everyone?"

3. If you use written stimuli, be sure to accept all possible contact variations. Given the fact that your students may have learned English in the British style, your test should not penalize them for using British writing mechanics.

4. Start your test with easier items and build up to the more difficult ones. This will increase the examinee's self-confidence and allow him to do a better job on the test.

5. Pre-test the items on your examination before you give it to insure the validity of the test items. You may find that particular items are too difficult or too easy and you may wish to replace these.

6. Use plenty of examples to show what the examinee must do before beginning the test. Make sure he understands what is expected of him.

7. Insure that all instructions are clear, brief and unambiguous.

8. Insure that the examinee has enough time to complete the test.

9. If you give a multiple choice test, use separate answer sheets. These may be grid-scored, which allows the test booklets to be reused.

10. Never reinforce during the test, particularly if it's an interview-type test. Remain neutral, expressing neither approval nor disapproval. While you should repeat a stimulus if the examinee has not heard it, do not press the examinee to answer if he has obviously not understood your stimulus. Remember that if the examiner is relaxed and friendly, the inherent tension of the test situation will be reduced and the examinee will have a better opportunity to perform well.

APPENDIX F

#9

Indochinese Refugee Education Guides

GENERAL INFORMATION SERIES: A Selected Bibliography of Dictionaries

The Indochinese refugee, in trying to cope with his language problems in the United States, nearly always feels that what he needs most is a dictionary. The purpose of this bulletin is to provide the American teacher or sponsor with information on the use, limitations and availability of dictionaries which can be used by the refugee -- if not to solve all his language problems at once, at least to give him something to hold while he is solving them some other way.

The dictionaries in the annotated list below are either monolingual or bilingual. Monolingual dictionaries are those in which the words and their definitions are both in the same language. They are designed to be used by a native speaker of the language, and range from unabridged dictionaries, which aim at listing all the words in use in the language at the time of publication, to dictionaries with very limited scope, such as those written for preschool children.

Bilingual dictionaries are those in which the words are listed in one language, but their definitions (as well as information on grammar and pronunciation) are given in another language. They are designed to be used by someone who is learning one or the other of the languages. A bilingual Vietnamese-English dictionary, for example, lists Vietnamese words (in Vietnamese alphabetical order), and gives English equivalents, definitions and grammatical information for them; it is useful to the student of Vietnamese or English.

Bilingual dictionaries are either one-way or two-way. One-way bilingual dictionaries contain two lists of words: a two-way Vietnamese-English, English-Vietnamese dictionary has a list of Vietnamese words with English definitions, and a list of English words with Vietnamese definitions. (If the dictionary is at all extensive, the lists of words will be in two volumes, for reasons having to do with portability.) The title of a dictionary will ordinarily indicate whether it is one- or two-way, and which way it goes: a Vietnamese-English dictionary has a Vietnamese word list with English definitions, an English-Vietnamese dictionary has an English word list with Vietnamese definitions, and a Vietnamese-English, English-Vietnamese dictionary has both. The preface and explanatory notes of a dictionary will be in the same language as the definitions.

Problems with bilingual dictionaries

A bilingual dictionary differs from a monolingual dictionary in that in a bilingual dictionary, *equivalents* are given whenever possible. In a monolingual dictionary, for example, the word *dog* is defined ("...common domestic animal...a friend of man, of which there are many breeds..."); in an English-Vietnamese bilingual dictionary, however, the Vietnamese equivalent of *dog*, i.e. *chó*, is given, with nothing about domestic animals mentioned at all. In many cases, this is all that is necessary; the Vietnamese learner of English already knows what a *chó* is, so when he looks up the word *dog*, being told that it is a *chó* is fine for his purposes. Likewise, if the Vietnamese learner of English wants to find out what the English word for *chó* is, his Vietnamese-English bilingual dictionary will tell him that it is dog, and he can proceed with whatever he was saying.

Words like dog which translate fairly straightforwardly across languages are for the most part nouns and verbs denoting common objects and actions; as long as the language learner restricts himself to talking about mundane items and activities his bilingual dictionary will not lead him astray. Even on this level, however, problems can arise.

The most obvious problem stems from the fact that in every language words have multiple meanings. The best a bilingual dictionary can do is to list the equivalents for these multiple meanings, usually with the most frequently occurring meanings ordered before the less frequently occurring ones. The dictionary user must depend on the situation to supply him with enough clues to enable him to choose the right equivalent, and very often the situation doesn't. In one English-Vietnamese dictionary, for example, dog is translated as chó, the Vietnamese equivalent for dog as we mentioned above; an alternative equivalent given is giá để củi trong lò sưởi, which translates as "fireplace rack"; a third equivalent given is người đểu-giả, which translates as "unscrupulous person". (dog, in British English, can mean "fireplace rack" and "unscrupulous person", as well as "dog". The English half of this dictionary is British rather than American.) The Vietnamese learner of English, given the sentence "There's the dog," has only the situation to tell him which of the three equivalents is the right one. Conversely, the Vietnamese learner of English who looks up chó in a Vietnamese-English dictionary is given the English equivalents dog and unscrupulous person, and he has to choose between them. The Vietnamese is as much at a loss deciding between dog and unscrupulous person as the American is who is deciding between chó, giá để củi trong lò sưởi, and người đểu-giả.

Often these decisions are arbitrary ones, and the results are the sorts of "fractured

English" like *I'd like someone book, we need it in the English program the present.* (There are countless examples of "fractured Vietnamese" and "fractured Cambodian" as well.) The only way for, say, a Vietnamese to guard against mistakes of this sort is to look up a word first in a Vietnamese-English dictionary, and then look up each of the alternative equivalents in an English-Vietnamese dictionary to double-check its meaning. All of which is tedious and time-consuming to the point of being counter-productive.

Another unavoidable problem in using a bilingual dictionary is that very often there is no exact equivalent in one language for a word in the other, and the dictionary has to list a definition. In English, for example, there is no direct equivalent for the word *cái*, which functions grammatically like the word piece in *a piece of cake*. One of the Vietnamese-English dictionaries defines it as "word denoting inanimate object"; a Vietnamese refugee inexperienced in the ways of dictionaries might well translate the phrase *môt cái quần* -- which means "pair of pants" -- as "one word denoting inanimate object trousers"!

The most obvious difficulty with using dictionaries is that there is more to communicating in a language than getting the words right. The following excerpt from a letter in the National Indochinese Clearinghouse files demonstrates this: "I'm is refugees from Vietnam please help me gives somes books..."; the author clearly intended to say "please help me by giving me some books", but we were able to figure this out only because he couldn't have meant anything else. Although all the words in this sentence are all right, the grammatical trappings which indicate the relationships among the words are either lacking or in the wrong place, and as a consequence the sentence doesn't say what it means. Learning where the grammatical trappings of a sentence should go is something that a dictionary can't teach; in other words, a dictionary is not a substitute for a language class.

Choosing a dictionary

Unfortunately, really excellent bilingual dictionaries simply don't exist, except for languages like German-English and French-English, where there has been sufficient interaction between the countries speaking the languages to warrant the expense of the extensive research necessary to produce a good bilingual dictionary. Nonetheless, an intelligent user can get something out of even a very poor-quality dictionary, if he is aware of its limitations. As we mentioned before, words for common, ordinary things and actions are likely to have direct equivalents in both languages; these are the items the newly-arrived refugee will be looking up, and they are also the ones most successfully dealt with in a bilingual dictionary.

The psychological value of simply having a dictionary in one's hands should not be discounted, especially with highly educated refugees. Often, a dictionary serves — like the "courage medicine" the Wizard of Oz gave the Cowardly Lion — not so much to provide knowledge that wasn't there, but to provide the confidence to use the knowledge.

In any event, the refugee should be encouraged to switch from a bilingual dictionary to a monolingual dictionary as soon as possible, not only because it's better for his English, but also because there is such a wide range of excellent monolingual dictionaries, he can pick one exactly suited to his age and interests.

To bridge the gap between a bilingual dictionary and a monolingual dictionary designed for native speakers of English, the refugee should be given a monolingual

English dictionary especially designed for those who are learning English as a Foreign Language. The refugee who arrives in the United States able to read and write English pretty well can use one of these dictionaries from the start and, if he learns to use it to its fullest potential, he will appreciate the wealth of information it contains--not just on words, their definitions and grammatical characteristics, but also in areas problematic to foreigners, such as abbreviations, affixes, weights, measures, common first names, country names, and so on.

1. NGUYỄN ĐÌNH HÒA. Vietnamese-English Dictionary. Rutland, Vt.: C.E. Tuttle Co., 1966. $8.50.

   A simple and concise dictionary intended for use by the English-speaking student of Vietnamese. One-way only, it does not have definitions from English to Vietnamese. Guide to Vietnamese pronunciation is included. Approximately 27,000 entries.

   A revised and enlarged edition (approx. 43,000 entries) is available from the Southern Illinois University Press, Carbondale, IL 62901, at $15.00. (618) 453-2281.

2. LÊ BÁ KÔNG. Standard Pronouncing English-Vietnamese Dictionary (Tự-Điển Tiêu-Chuẩn Anh-Việt). Houston, Texas: Zieleks Publishing Co., 1975. 494 pp. $5.95.

   Approximately 12,000 entries. A new, revised and enlarged edition of the dictionary which has been in circulation in the U.S. Provides guides to Vietnamese pronunciation and tones, and an outline of Vietnamese grammar for the benefit of the English-speaking student of Vietnamese.

3. LÊ BÁ KÔNG and LÊ BÁ KHANH. Standard Pronouncing Vietnamese-English Dictionary (Tự-Điển Tiêu-Chuẩn Việt-Anh). Houston, Texas: Zieleks Publishing Co., 1975. 400 pp. $5.45.

   A new, revised and enlarged edition of the dictionary in circulation in the U.S., intended for the English speaker. One-way only, does not contain English-Vietnamese section. Approximately 9,000 entries.

4. LÊ BÁ KÔNG and LÊ BÁ KHANH. Standard Pronouncing English-Vietnamese/Vietnamese-English Dictionary. Houston, Texas: Zieleks Publishing Co., 1975. 900 pp, hard cover. $16.50.

   This dictionary is a combination of the Standard Pronouncing English-Vietnamese Dictionary and the Standard Pronouncing Vietnamese-English Dictionary, mentioned above, presented as one volume. Includes English pronunciation guides for the benefit of the Vietnamese speaker. Approximately 20,000 entries.

5. LÊ BÁ KÔNG. Vietnamese-English Conversational Dictionary (Tự-Điển Đàm-Thoại Việt-Anh). Houston, Texas: Zieleks Publishing Co., 1975. 414 pp. $4.45.

Vietnamese-English only, this volume defines frequently-encountered words and phrases in Vietnamese; definitions include examples of use. Also includes pronunciation and English grammar guides to irregular verbs, affixes, pronouns, interrogatories, etc. Approximately 6,000 entries.

6. NGUYỄN VĂN KHÔN. Usual Vietnamese-English/English-Vietnamese Dictionary (Việt-Anh Anh-Việt Tự-Điển Thông-Dụng). Fort Lewis, Wa: Pacific Northwest Trading Co., 1975. 1616 pp. $14.95.

A reprint of a two-way dictionary originally published by Khai-Tri in Saigon. Includes pronunciation guides for both Vietnamese and English (British); does not provide guide to phonetic symbols used. Approximately 56,000 entries.

7. Cambodian-English Glossary. Washington, DC: Inter-Agency Task Force, 1975. Free of charge. Available through December 31, 1975 unless reprinted.

A two-way glossary providing brief translation equivalents, without detail or pronunciation guides. Utilizes both Cambodian and English alphabets, so a familiarity with both is necessary. The Glossary was designed to be used with specific Cambodian/English material, so equivalents are at times unavoidably misleading. Approximately 20,000 entries.

8. KERR, Allen D. Lao-English Dictionary. Washington, DC: Catholic University of America Press in association with Consortium Press, 1972. 2 vols., $42.00.

An extensive, updated one-way dictionary, containing about 25,000 entries. Presentation of Lao is in the roman alphabet; tones are indicated by means of a simple and readily understandable system, with a minimum of phonetic symbols.

9. MARCUS, Russell. English-Lao, Lao-English Dictionary. Rutland, Vt.: C.E. Tuttle Co., 1971. 416 pp. $5.50.

Two-way dictionary. English-Lao section contains 5,000 entries especially selected for the use of the foreigner. Uses similar phonetic symbols as described above for Kerr dictionary. The Lao-English section also is a carefully selected list. Includes a section on the rules for alphabetizing Lao words and notes about the language, including consonant-vowel structure, pronunciation, tone marks, and punctuation. This volume is currently out of print; reprint pending. May still be available in some bookstores.

10. HORNBY, A.S. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English, New Edition. New York: Oxford University Press, 1974. $8.95. Hard cover.

Universally used and respected dictionary for ESL students. Carefully designed to meet the needs of the ESL student, it includes a lengthy introduction which explains how to use the dictionary, an extremely practical, useful guide to pronunciation, appendices of such aspects of English as irregular verbs, affixes, and geographical names, and attention throughout to providing examples and contextual information, which all combine with other features to make the dictionary the most useful work available to the student.

11. SHAW, John R. and Janet Shaw. The Horizon Ladder Dictionary of the English Language. 2nd edition. New York: New American Library, 1970. $.95.

Intended for adult students of ESL. Special sections (in English) on English grammar, place names, and common abbreviations. Illustrative sentences clarify definitions. Entries include the 5,000 most frequently-occurring English words.

PUBLISHERS' ADDRESSES

1. Consortium Press, 1 West Deer Park Drive, Gaithersburg MD 20760. (301) 977-4440.

2. Inter-Agency Task Force, Office of Special Projects, 1717 K St, NW, Rm 820,
Washington DC 20006. (202) 254-8283.

3. New American Library, 1301 Avenue of the Americas, New York NY 10019.
(212) 956-3800.

4. Oxford University Press, 1600 Pollitt Drive, Fairlawn NJ 07410. (212) 564-6680.

5. Pacific Northwest Trading Co., Inc., P.O. Box 33184, Fort Lewis WA 98433.
(206) 964-4517. East Coast: Vietnamese Pub. Co., Inc., P.O. Box 1251,
Secaucus NJ 07094. (201) 863-8248.

6. Charles E. Tuttle Co., P.O. Box 470, Rutland VT 05701. (802) 773-8930.

7. Zieleks Publishing Co., 5006 Calhoun Rd., #76, Houston TX 77004. (713) 741-5694.

APPENDIX G

Indochinese Refugee Education Guides

#2

BILINGUAL/BICULTURAL EDUCATION SERIES: A Selected, Annotated Bibliography on Bilingual/Bicultural Education

This highly selective bibliography is intended for the general K-12 classroom teacher who is unfamiliar with the purposes, methods and techniques of bilingual education. With the influx of Indochinese refugees into our nation's school systems, many teachers found that for the first time in their teaching careers, they had one or more non-English speaking children in their classrooms. In an attempt to help the refugee child adjust to the American environment the teacher began to ask questions about native language instruction, English as a second language, necessary cultural components, etc. The present bibliography will, we hope, lead to some useful answers.

We have divided the entries into five sections: Information Sources, Anthologies, Bilingualism, General Aspects of Bilingual Education, Specific Bilingual Programs and Curriculum.

INFORMATION SOURCES

PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE). c/o Office of Bilingual Education, New York City Board of Education, 66 Court Street, Brooklyn, NY 11201.

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). c/o School of Languages and Linguistics, Georgetown University, Washington, DC 20057.

RESOURCE CENTERS

Title VII Bilingual Resource Centers

Listed below are the centers funded under Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. They are of three types: Resource, Materials Development, and Dissemination/Assessment.

Resource:

Berkeley Resource Center, 1414 Walnut St., Berkeley, CA 94709.

San Diego Resource Center, San Diego State University, Institute for Cultural Pluralism, San Diego, CA 92102.

Regional Cross-Cultural Training & Resource Center, N.Y.C. Board of Education, Office of Bilingual Education, 110 Livingston St., Rm. 224, Brooklyn, NY 11201.

Multilingual/Multicultural Resource & Training Center for New England, 455 Wickenden St., Providence, RI 02903.

Bilingual Education Service Center, 500 South Dwyer Ave., Arlington Heights, IL 60006.

Bilingual/Bicultural Resource Center, P.O. Box 3410 USL, Lafayette, LA 70501.

Bilingual Education Resource Center, College of Education, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, NM 87131.

Materials Development:

Asian American Bilingual Center, 2168 Shattuck, Berkeley, CA 94705.

Santa Cruz Bilingual Materials Development Center, P.O. Box 601, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ 85721.

California State Polytechnic Multilingual/Multicultural Development Center, University of Pomona, 3801 W. Temple Ave., Pomona, CA 91768.

National Materials Development Center, 168 South River Rd., Bedford, NH 03102.

Spanish Curricula Development Center, 7100 N.W. 17th Ave., Miami, FL 33147.

Northeast Center for Curriculum Development, N.Y.C. Board of Education, Community S.D. #7, 778 Forest Ave., Bronx, NY 10456.

Midwest Materials Development Center, Forest Home Ave. School, 1516 West Forest Home Ave., Milwaukee, WI 53204.

Bilingual Materials Development Center, Camp Bowie (6800), Ft. Worth, TX 76107.

Native American Materials Development Center, Box 248, Ramah, NM 87321.

Dissemination/Assessment:

Bilingual Materials Dissemination Assessment Center at Fall River, 383 High St., Fall River, MA 02720.

Dissemination/Assessment Center for Bilingual Education, 6504 Tracor Lane, Austin, TX 78721.

Type B General Assistance Centers ("Lau Centers")

These Centers are funded under Title IV of the Civil Rights Act. Their primary function is that of helping school districts not in compliance with the recent "Lau vs. Nichols" Supreme Court Decision to set up appropriate bilingual/bicultural education programs.

Centers

Bilingual General Assistance Center, Box 11, Institute for Urban and Minority Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, NY 10027.

Florida School Desegregation Center, School of Education, University of Miami, P.O. Box 8065, Coral Gables, FL 33124.

School of Education, Chicago State University, 95th St. at King Drive, Chicago, IL 60628.

Intercultural Development Research Association, 114 Glenview Drive West, Suite 118, San Antonio, TX 78228.

Coalition of Indian Controlled School Boards, Inc., Suite 4, 811 Lincoln, Denver, CO 80203.

Type B GAC Center, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, NM 87131.

Institute for Cultural Pluralism, San Diego State University, San Diego, CA 92182.

Bilingual Education Program, Berkeley Unified School District, 1414 Walnut St., Berkeley, CA 94709.

Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, Lindsay Bldg/710 SW, Second Ave., Portland, OR 97204.

DIRECTORIES, BIBLIOGRAPHIES

CARTEL: Annotated Bibliography of Bilingual/Bicultural Materials. Austin, Texas: Dissemination Center for Bilingual Bicultural Education, 1973-.

A monthly annotated bibliographic journal of audio-visual materials, curriculum materials, library resources and professional resources for bilingual/bicultural education.

Diaz, Carmen. "Bilingual-Bicultural Materials." Lawrence, Kansas: University of Kansas Special Education Instruction Materials Center, 1973. [ERIC ED 084 915]

This paper describes and evaluates bilingual/bicultural materials. Also given are reference sources and bibliographies for ESL Programs. Lists evaluative instruments for use in making assessments of children from Spanish-speaking families.

Guide to Title VII ESEA Bilingual Bicultural Programs, 1974-75. Austin, Texas: Dissemination Center for Bilingual Bicultural Education, 1975.

This publication is designed to serve as a guide and directory to programs funded during Fiscal Year 1974-75 through Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. (The Guide for 1976 is presently in preparation.) The programs identified represent some forty languages and dialects. Each entry provides: name of the local education agency, the name of the project, the name of the project director, address, funding year, and the language used.

Salazar, Theresa. Bilingual Education: A Bibliography. Greeley, Colorado: Bureau of Research Services, University of Northern Colorado, 1975.

Contains an unannotated listing of books relating to bilingual education, periodicals, papers and speeches, research studies and curriculum guides. Also makes references to additional bibliographies.

PERIODICALS

The Bilingual Review/La Revista Bilingüe. New York: City University of New York, 1974-. 3 issues a year.

NABE: The Journal of the National Association for Bilingual Education. Long Island City, NY: Las Americas Publishing Co., 1976-. Quarterly.

TESOL Quarterly. Washington, DC: Teachers of English as a Second Language, 1967-. Quarterly.

Working Papers on Bilingualism/Travaux de Recherches Sur Le Bilinguisme. Toronto, Ontario: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1973-. Irregular.

ANTHOLOGIES

Abrahams, Roger D. and Rudolph C. Troike, eds. Language and Cultural Diversity in American Education. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1972.

This anthology of essays contains among its sections: The Problem, which is concerned with the teaching of linguistically and culturally different students; Culture in Education, emphasizing the importance of the educator in helping children of all backgrounds through a better understanding of those various cultures; Language, which presents basic information concerning language acquisition, grammar, competence and performance, dialects, and the history of the English language; Sociolinguistics, dealing with the role of language in social interaction and with the effects of bilingualism and multilingualism.

Cadzen, Courtney, V.P. John and D. Hymes, eds. Function of Language in the Classroom. New York: Teachers College Press, 1972.

A compilation of articles addressing: perspectives in nonverbal communication; bilingualism and bidialectalism, and communicative strategies and their utilization in the classroom. This book is an endeavor to provide useful information on the functions of language in the classroom. Discusses social relationships and social change as integral problems of school as they relate to styles of teaching and styles of learning vis-à-vis language. The authors state that the key to understanding language in context is to start, not with language, but with context.

Hymes, Dell, ed. Language in Culture and Society. New York: Harper and Row, 1964.

A major compilation of articles by noted anthropologists and linguistics dealing with integral issues as they relate to language and culture. The articles cover the broad, complex, and significant fields of linguistic problems as they are related to anthropological concerns. The themes covered can be summarized as follows: the evaluation of differences and similarities among languages; the significance of linguistic patterns for the basic outlook of a people; the relation between a people's vocabulary and their own interests; how speaking enters into norms of interaction among persons; and how social factors enter into linguistic change.

Pialorski, Frank, ed. Teaching the Bilingual. Tucson, Arizona: University of Arizona Press, 1974.

This is a collection of articles addressing vital issues in bilingual/bicultural education, bicultural understanding, measurement of bilingualism, and program implementation. The various perspectives (linguistic, socio-cultural, and pedagogical) offered by the authors will give administrators and teachers insights into a wide range of multi-disciplinary approaches in bilingual and bidialectal education.

Troike, Rudolph C. and Nancy Modiano, eds. Proceedings of the First Inter-American Conference on Bilingual Education. Arlington, Virginia: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1975.

Compilation of papers presented at the first Inter-American Conference on Bilingual Education, in Mexico City, November 1974. The authors (social scientists, educators, linguists, and government officials from the United States, Canada, and Latin America) present a wide range of viewpoints on critical issues of bilingual/bicultural education. Among the topics are: Goals and Models for Bilingual Education, Teaching the Second Language, Teaching the Mother Language, Development of Materials for Bilingual Education, Research in Bilingual Education.

Turner, Paul R., ed. Bilingualism in the Southwest. Tucson, Arizona: University of Arizona Press, 1973.

Focusing on the Mexican-American and the American Indian, this book has a number of articles concerning bilingualism and bilingual education in the Southwest. Discusses general problems and methods and includes an essay emphasizing the future needs of the fields of bilingualism and bilingual education.

BILINGUALISM

Bilingualism and the Bilingual Child: A Symposium. Offprint from The Modern Language Journal 49.3&4 (1965).

Contains a series of papers delivered at a Conference for the Teacher of the Bilingual Child. Subjects covered include the status and prospects of bilingualism in the U.S.; the acculturation of the bilingual child; teaching the bilingual child; psychological aspects of bilingualism; bilingualism, intelligence and language learning.

Fishman, Joshua A., Robert L. Cooper, Roxana Ma, and others. Bilingualism in the Barrio. (Language Science Monograph, 7.) Bloomington. Indiana: Indiana University, 1971.

A detailed and theoretical sociolinguistic study of Puerto Rican bilingualism in the greater New York and Jersey City areas. While much of the work may be too technical for many teachers, this study is included because it gives a general overview of and background for sociolinguistic studies of bilingualism, and a thorough explanation of the field work design, collection of data, and interpretation of data.

Fishman, Joshua A. "The Implication of Bilingualism for Language Teaching and Language Learning." In Albert Valdman (ed.), Trends in Language Teaching. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966.

This excellent article presents a definition of bilingualism, a rationale for studying it, and some problems and profits arising from its presence.

Haugen, E. "The Stigmata of Bilingualism." In Anwar Dil (ed.), The Ecology of Language, Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1972.

For many people the definition of bilingualism is a euphemism for "linguistically handicapped". The author discusses the ambiguity present in the early literature of bilingualism: references to dangers of retardation, intellectual impoverishment, and schozophrenia, on the one hand, and the advantages of dual language and culture on the other. Excellent article for those interested in the more traditional perspectives regarding bilingualism.

Jensen, J. Vernon. "Effects of Childhood Bilingualism." Elementary English Part I: 39.2:132-43 (Feb. 1962); Part II: 39.4:358-66 (April 1962).

Extensive research review of negative and positive evidence regarding the effects of bilingualism on such areas as speech, intellectual and educational development, and emotional stability. Includes a section of procedural and attitudinal recommendations for elementary schools, a section evaluating the literature, and a bibliography of some 200 references.

Lambert, Wallace E. "A Social Psychology of Bilingualism." Journal of Social Issues 23.2:91-109 (1967).

Classic paper integrating sociopsychological research regarding bilingualism and the social influences affecting individual bilingual behavior. The article also deals with sociopsychological aspects of second language learning.

Lado, Robert. *Linguistics Across Cultures: Applied Linguistics for Language Teachers*. Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan Press, 1957.

Describes how to compare two languages and predict difficulties that will be encountered by a learner of a second language. Contrasts sounds, structures, vocabularies, and writing systems of two languages.

Mackey, W.F. *Bilingualism as A World Problem*. Montreal: Harvest House, 1967.

The discussion in this text should be of interest to administrators, teachers, and parents, who wish to acquire a broader perspective on bilingualism. The book is divided into three parts: the first attempts to expose bilingualism as a global problem as the author distinguishes between the bilingual individual and the bilingual country; the second part traces political factors as important elements in the universality of bilingualism; the third part discusses all factors which make bilingualism universal.

Mackey, W.F. "The Description of Bilingualism." *Canadian Journal of Linguistics* 7:2.51-85 (1962).

Traces the development of major definitions of bilingualism through a discussion of who is bilingual and what it means. Makes reference to such area of language contact and usage as: home language, community language, occupation group, recreation group, and school language.

Padilla, A.M. and E. Liebman. "Language Acquisition in the Bilingual Child." *The Bilingual Review* 2:1&2.34-55 (1975).

Excellent article concerned with the simultaneous acquisition of Spanish and English in three children. The authors compare this study with monolingual language acquisition studies. Authors found no evidence in the language samples that might suggest an overall reduced or slower rate of language growth for the bilingual children of the study.

Saville-Troike, Muriel. *Bilingual Children: A Resource Document*. (Bilingual Education Series, 2) Arlington, Va.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1975.

The main focus of this resource book is to provide as succinctly as possible information on the issues of bilingualism and child language acquisition from an early childhood perspective. It is a wealth of well-documented references to, and discussions about, the Mexican American, Puerto Rican, and Native American child. The document points out some of the misunderstandings which occur between members of majority and minority cultures which may hamper the development of the bilingual child. Extensive bibliography appended.

Spolsky, Bernard, ed. *The Language Education of Minority Children: Selected Readings*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1972.

Articles discuss issues crucial to bilingual/bicultural education, i.e. the expectations of language education, sociolinguistic perspectives, language assessment, and curriculum.

Ulibarri, Horacio. "Bilingualism." In Emma Marie Birkmaier (ed.), *Britannica Review of Foreign Language Education* (Vol. I). Chicago: Encyclopedia Britannica, 1968.

The author discusses the nature of bilingualism, the interrelationship between bilingualism and biculturalism, the problems faced by educators in handling the situation, and the implications for teachers. The relationship of bilin-

gualism to acculturation and biculturalism is noted, as are studies concerning these areas and others, including testing and social class stratification.

Weinreich, Uriel. Languages in Contact: Findings and Problems. New York: Linguistic Circle of New York, 1953.

Major publication in the study of bilingualism. Though highly technical, the introductory chapters provide excellent explanations of language developments as they occur when cultures and languages overlap and co-exist.

BILINGUAL EDUCATION: GENERAL

Andersson, T. and M. Boyer. Bilingual Schooling in the United States. (2 vols.) Austin, Tex.: Southwest Educational Development Lab., 1970.

Excellent and readable historical overview of societal and cultural factors that have influenced bilingual schooling in the U.S. A major focus of these volumes is an explanation of the Bilingual/Bicultural Education Act of 1968 and proposed guidelines. The authors also provide a general overview of earlier bilingual programs across the U.S.

Benitez, M. "Bilingual Education: the What, the How, and the How Far." Hispania 54:499-503 (Sept. 1971).

Introductory article on the components of a bilingual/bicultural program and organizational procedures for such. Discusses information on teaching Spanish and English skills, and offers insights on the development of a cultural component in the curriculum.

Bilingual Education Act: Hearing Before the General Subcommittee on Education of the Committee on Education and Labor, House of Representatives, Ninety-third Congress. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1974.

Three bills concerning education of the limited English speaking child, teacher training for bilingual education programs, qualifications for schools receiving federal aid for bilingual education, and expansion of programs of bilingual education.

Bilingual Education: An Unmet Need. Washington, DC: General Accounting Office, 1976.

An assessment of how bilingual education was or was not carried out under the 1968 Bilingual Education Act. Current needs are outlined and possible guidlines discussed.

Center for Applied Linguistics. Guidelines for the Preparation and Certification of Teachers of Bilingual/Bicultural Education. Arlington, Va.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1974.

This brief statement is intended to assist teacher certification agencies and educational institutions in the establishment of certification standards for bilingual/bicultural education teachers, as well as the design and evaluation of bilingual/bicultural teacher training programs.

Engle, Patricia Lee. *The Use of Vernacular Languages in Education: Language Medium in Early School Years for Minority Language Groups*. (Bilingual Education Series, 3) Arlington, Va.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1975.

Excellent reference on materials relating to the possible advantages of initial reading and subject matter in a child's native language before introducing him to instruction and reading in his second language. Discussion on major issues and recommendations of two basic language learning approaches: the Direct Method and the Native Language Approach. Detailed description of four studies relating to teaching initial reading and subject matter in a child's first language.

Fishman, Joshua A. *Bilingual Education*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1976.

Presents an international perspective on bilingual education from the standpoint of educational as well as sociological needs. Of practical interest to teachers are thumbnail sketches of ten bilingual schools outside of the United States.

Fishman, Joshua A. "The Politics of Bilingual Education." In James E. Alatis (ed.), *Bilingualism and Language Contact: Anthropological, Linguistic, and Sociological Aspects*. (Georgetown Univ. Monograph Series on Language and Linguistics, 23) Washington, DC: Georgetown University, 1970.

Discusses the possible role of language scholars and language teachers in influencing bilingual education legislation. Suggests some techniques and approaches suited to the initial organizational stage of a bilingual education lobby, and highlights pertinent political issues that reconceptualize what America is and what it should do.

Geffert, Hannah, Robert Harper, Salvador Sarmiento and Daniel M. Schender. *The Current Status of U.S. Bilingual Education Legislation*. (Bilingual Education Series, 4.) Arlington, Va.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1975.

This is a historical overview and explanation of legislation that has influenced America's "language tradition". It cites specific legislation at the state and federal level in effect as of Spring 1975, and mentions, as well, court decisions, such as the Lau *vs*. Nichols decision.

Peña, Albar. "Bilingual Education: The What, the Why and the How?" *NABE* 1.1: 27-34 (1976).

Gives a brief explanation of the Bilingual Education Act of 1968 and the 1974 amendments, explains the needs for bilingual education in the U.S., and comments on the role that must be played by parents, teachers, school administrators and the general public.

Saville, Muriel and Rudolph C. Troike. *A Handbook of Bilingual Education*. Washington, DC: TESOL, 1971.

Addressed to teachers and administrators, this handbook is a practical guide for those working in bilingual programs. The authors review the history of and fundamental considerations in bilingual education, and consider the linguistic, psychological, sociocultural, and pedagogical problems involved. Each section contains an excellent bibliography.

Trueba, Enrique T. "Bilingual/Bicultural Education: An Overview." In L.J. Rubin (ed.), Handbook on Curriculum. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1975.

Excellent historical overview of bilingual schooling in the U.S., including developments up to the 1974 Bilingual/Bicultural Education Act amendment. The article raises issues that are critical to those involved in bilingual education, such as: what are the criteria used to identify children eligible for bilingual education?; and does bilingual education respond to the expectations of ethnic groups?

The author perceives bilingual/bicultural education as a multi-disciplinary and cross-cultural field that draws from psychology, sociology, anthropology, pedagogy, and linguistics. Other concerns discussed are teacher-training, research, and evaluation.

von Maltitz, Frances Willard. Living and Learning in Two Languages: Bilingual-Bicultural Education in the United States. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1975.

The most recent overview of developments in Bilingual/Bicultural Education. Author presents historical and sociological perspectives in Bilingual Education; a concise rationale for bicultural education; discussions on the Bilingual Education Act of 1968 and the 1974 Amendment; and descriptions of methodological approaches in the bilingual classroom.

BILINGUAL EDUCATION: SPECIFIC PROGRAMS AND CURRICULUM MODELS

Baratz, Joan C. and Janice C. Redish. "Development of Bilingual/Bicultural Education Models." Washington, DC: Education Study Center, 1973.

This report includes chapters on the goals of bilingual education, the development of theoretical models for bilingual education, and the realization of concrete educational models. Other subjects discussed include methodology, testing and measurement and teacher training.

Bell, Paul. "The Bilingual School." In J. Allen Figurel (ed.), Reading and Inquiry: Proceedings of the International Reading Association, 10. Newark, Del.: International Reading Assoc., 1965.

Describes the origin, organization, and implementation of a bilingual-bicultural curriculum for a public school in Miami, Florida. Goals for the program, community planning, staff organization, and curriculum development are lucidly presented.

Bernal, Ernest M., Jr. "Models of Bilingual Education, Grades K-3, for a Planned Variation Study." Arlington, Va.: ERIC, April 1974. [ED 097 157]

The article presents four different theoretical and methodological approaches to bilingual education. The Models are: the Behaviorist Model, the Immersion Model, an Eclectic Model, and a Child-Centered Model.

Campeau, Peggy and others. "The Identification and Description of Exemplary Bilingual Education Programs." Palo Alto, Calif.: American Institutes for Research, 1975.

Report of a study undertaken for the U.S. Office of Education. Discussion includes methodology and conclusions of study as well as detailed program descriptions.

Cohen, Andrew. "Bilingual Schooling and Spanish Language Maintenance: An Experimental Analysis." The Bilingual Review 2:1&2.3-12 (1975).

A description of the Redwood City Bilingual Education Project which aims to maintain a minority group's language and culture. Their longitudinal study shows that Mexican American students in the bilingual program were using Spanish more after several years than comparable children schooled conventionally.

Cohen, Andrew D. "The Culver City Spanish Immersion Program: the First Two Years." The Modern Language Journal 58:3.95-102 (1974).

Describes a program designed for English-speaking students participating in a bilingual program and discusses definite policy implications for bilingual education programs elsewhere. The Culver City Spanish Immersion Program is modeled after the St. Lambert project in Montreal, Canada. The author discusses the monolingual Spanish curriculum for the English dominant children, the parental support that made the program possible, and results from evaluations.

Gaarder, Bruce A. "Organization of the Bilingual School." Journal of Social Issues 23:2.110-120 (1967).

Presents one of the most well developed conceptualizations of the nature of bilingual education available. Complex models of "one-way" schools (one group learning in two languages) and "two-way" schools (two groups, each learning in its own and the other's language) are juxtaposed in terms of such dimensions as: mother tongue added or second language added to the curriculum; segregated classes or mixed classes; equal or unequal time and treatment, etc.

Jenkins, Mary. Bilingual Education in New York City. Brooklyn, NY: Office of Bilingual Education, New York City Board of Education, 1971.

This report is divided into eight sections. Among them are (1) Bilingual Education -- A Historical Perspective; (2) The Puerto Rican Child in the New York City School System; (3) Bilingual Education in the New York City School System; (4) Funding for Bilingual Programs; (5) Rationale for Bilingual Education.

John, Vera and Vivian Horner. Early Childhood Bilingual Education. New York: Modern Language Association, 1971.

Included in this work are comments concerning various bilingual programs around the country. The work at Rough Rock and Coral Way is discussed, as is bilingualism in New York City. The importance of combining bicultural education with language study is emphasized.

Lambert, Wallace and Richard Tucker. Bilingual Education of Children: the St. Lambert Experiment. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1972.

A very thorough longitudinal study of a bilingual program, covering seven years of Canadian children (K-6) in a French-English setting. Gives detailed explanations of how the program was initiated, parental support, the organization of the program, and teacher competencies. Also given is detailed description of research design using both pilot groups and control groups.

Mackey, W.F. Bilingual Education in a Binational School: A Study of Equal Language Maintenance Through Free Alternation. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1972.

> A case study of the JFK School in Berlin. In discussing factors that promote bilingualism in a school, the author examines the make-up of the population, teaching staff, selection and special characteristics of teachers. Of special interest is the author's often cited "Typology of Bilingual Education".

Macnamara, John. Bilingualism and Primary Education: A Study of Irish Experience. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 1966.

> The best single study of bilingualism in one country, especially from the standpoint of how nation-wide programs in bilingual education can be managed, or mismanaged.
>
> Discusses the often disappointing efforts of the Republic of Ireland to create a school population fluent in Gaelic as well as in English.

Zintz, Miles V. "What Classroom Teachers Should Know about Bilingual Education." Albuquerque, NM: University of New Mexico, 1969. [ERIC ED 028 427]

> This report is divided into the following chapters: (1) Cross-Cultural Education; (2) Problems in Second Language Learning; (3) Classroom Methodologies; (4) Special Aspects of Vocabulary; and (5) The Bilingual School.

Zirkel, Perry A. "Bilingual Education Programs at the Elementary School Level: Their Identification and Evaluation." The Bilingual Review 2:1&2.13-21 (1975).

> This study assesses the relative effectiveness of various experimental models of bilingual education with respect to selected pupil and parent outcomes. The study shows that bilingual instructors can be an effective means of improving the educational opportunities of limited English-speaking students in the primary grades. Author also stresses the need to achieve solid commitment, continuity, and coordination on the part of both school and community if significant status is to be accorded the native language.

APPENDIX H

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF BILINGUAL (AND MONOLINGUAL) VIETNAMESE, CAMBODIAN & LAOTIAN TEXT MATERIALS: K-12

The following is a short bibliography of monolingual and bilingual Vietnamese and Cambodian materials available for public sale. These have been produced by educational resource centers, school districts and state agencies across the country. We have deliberately excluded one-of-a-kind items that are available on an intrastate basis, such as materials obtainable through inter-library loan. Please note that the majority of the entries are for Vietnamese or Cambodian materials, due to the fact that materials in Lao are either limited or non-existent. However, Lao materials for teachers and students are being produced by the Heartland Education Agency, Ankeny, Iowa, and will soon be available from APPLE, Inc. The package includes 210 minutes of bilingual tapes (English-Lao), a teacher's handbook (115 pp., in English) and a student's handbook which contains transcripts of the tapes and an English-Lao dictionary (over 3,500 entries). For use by secondary students and adults, these materials are geared for survival English, incorporating subjects such as culture, math, health, filling out forms, etc. Ordering information may be obtained from: APPLE, Inc., P.O. Box 1914, Des Moines, Iowa 50306.

LANGUAGE ARTS

Vietnamese Textbooks: Reading Series

I Learn the Vietnamese Syllables, Grade I
I Learn to Read - Grade II
Reader - Grade III
Reader - Grade IV
Reader - Grade V

This series was developed by the Ministry of Education in Saigon and was the official Ministry textbook series used in all public schools in Vietnam. The books have been reprinted by: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1611 North Kent Street, Arlington, VA 22209.

Fables

The Crow and the Fox
The Donkey and the Fox
Two Donkeys
Wise Turtle, or The Big Race
The Fibbing Shepherd
The Fat Hens and Skinny Chickens
Who Will Place the Rattle on the Cat's Neck?

These are short fables, translated into Vietnamese and produced in paperback form.

Vietnamese-English Illustrated Vocabulary Series, Levels 1, 2, 3

The Illustrated Vocabulary Series deals with a variety of topics. The fables and the vocabulary book are available from: BABEL Media Center, 1033 Heinz St., Berkeley, CA 94710.

Primers

The Cat and the Rat
The Happy Taxi Cab
Tuong's Special Day
The Lost Thong
Where is Pete?
Anthology of Vietnamese Folk Stories
Vietnamese Spelling/Alphabet Book

Designed to act as Vietnamese/English bilingual pre-primer/primer level readers. There are cassettes to accompany these texts. The monolingual Spelling Book was designed to encourage children to maintain their language. Available from: English-Vietnamese Bilingual Program, San Diego City Schools, Programs Division, 4100 Normal St., San Diego, CA 92113.

Vietnamese Alphabet Coloring Book

Order from: Vietnamese Bilingual Materials, Grand Rapids Public Schools, Grand Rapids, Michigan. •

Vietnamese Alphabet Book and Cambodian Alphabet Book

Order from: Bilingual Program, D.C. Public Schools, 4820 Howard St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20016.

Meanings of U.S. Holidays:

The Meanings of Christmas

The Meanings of Thanksgiving

Available from: Arizona Department of Education, 1535 West Jefferson, Phoenix, Arizona 85007. Vietnamese text with slides.

MATH, SOCIAL STUDIES AND SCIENCE

Math Terminology List

93-page glossary.

U.S. Constitution translated into Vietnamese (Vietnamese-English, Bilingual)

U.S. Constitution translated into Cambodian (Cambodian-English, Bilingual)

Order above three items from: English-Vietnamese Bilingual Program, San Diego City Schools, Programs Division, 4100 Normal St., San Diego, CA 92103.

Social Studies Unit for Vietnamese Children in the U.S.A.

A handbook for teachers, with suggested objectives and teaching methods; covers U.S. and Vietnamese culture, geography, history, systems of measure and money, signs and symbols; includes appendices and bibliography. 40 pp.

English-Vietnamese Scientific Terminology for High School and Junior College Students:

Book I: Mathematics; Book II: Physics; Book III: Geography; Book IV: Chemistry; Book V: Natural Sciences; Book VI: Government and History.

This series lists a wide variety of English terms with appropriate Vietnamese equivalents, which will be of much help to students using English as their second language. Will also be useful to Vietnamese undergoing vocational training.

Order above items from: BABEL Media Center, 1033 Heinz Street, Berkeley, CA 94710.

U.S. History Supplements in Vietnamese and Cambodian;

Chemistry, Mathematics, Biology and Physics Supplements in Vietnamese;

Biology and Physics Supplements in Cambodian;

Order above items from: Midwest Indochinese Resource Center, 500 South Dwyer Avenue, Arlington Heights, IL 60005

CONSUMER, DRIVER EDUCATION AND HEALTH INFORMATION

Translation of Driver's Exam from Driving Handbook

Vicente Z. Serrano, Vietnamese Education Consultant, Kansas State Department of Education, 120 East 10th St., Topeka, KS 66612

Questions & Answers - Driver's Test

Pennsylvania Department of Motor Vehicles, Harrisburg, PA 17126

Driver's Guide

Department of Emergency Services, 4220 E. Martin Way, Olympia, WA 98504

Guide to Driving Practices

Department of Emergency Services, 4220 E. Martin Way, Olympia, WA 98504

Florida Driving Exam

Vu Duc Hanh, Bilingual Tutor/Language Arts Dept., Escambia County School Board, Pensacola, FL 32506

Consumer Information:

Banking, food stamps, insurance, housing, health, driving, etc. Write to: Wisconsin Ways, Resettlement Assistance Office, 4802 Sheboygan Ave., Madison, WI 53702

APPENDIX I

A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY ON INDOCHINESE CULTURAL TOPICS

The following short reference list is provided as an aid for further study. The majority of entries are for Vietnamese, mainly because much of the scholarship on Cambodia and Laos is written in French and is not readily available in the U.S.:

I. CHINESE PHILOSOPHY

1. The Analects of Confucius, Arthur Waley, trans., 1938.

2. The Canon of Reason and Virtue (Lao-tze's Tao Te Ching), Daisetz Teitaro Suzuki and Paul Carus, trans., Open Court Publ. Co., 1974.

3. The Chinese Classics, James Legge, trans., 1893.

4. Classics in Chinese Philosophy, comp. by Wade Baskin, Littlefield and Adams, Publ., Totowa, N.J., 1974.

II. VIETNAMESE, CAMBODIAN AND LAOTIAN HISTORY AND CULTURE

1. Area Handbook for South Vietnam, by American University Foreign Area Studies Division, U.S. Govt. Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1967.

   An extensive description by a team of American researchers and Vietnamese informants of the social, political, economic and legal systems of South Vietnam. The section on the social system contains references to many aspects of Vietnamese customs and traditions.

2. Area Handbook for Cambodia, American University Foreign Area Studies Division, U.S. Govt. Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1968.

   This handbook (and its companion Handbook for Laos) was prepared under contract to DA by scholars at American University, Washington, D.C. Designed as background information for military and foreign service officers going to Cambodia, this book may be used successfully by anyone interested in the country. While it is not intended for the "specialist" (either in economics, development, military affairs, or political science), neither is it simplistic nor superficial. A wide range of topics are discussed, ranging from history to economics to education to daily life. Useful bibliographies, maps and charts are included.

3. Area Handbook for Laos, American University Foreign Area Studies Division, U.S. Govt. Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1972.

   See Handbook for Cambodia above.

4. Cambodia: Its People, Its Society, Its Culture, David Steinberg et al., Human Relations Area File Press, New Haven, Conn., 1959.

   This is the companion volume to Laos: Its People, Its Society, Its Culture, and the same careful scholarship may be seen in this book. While not specifically written for the "expert", this book is a careful and clear discussion of the problems, and the background of those problems, facing Cambodia.

5. Customs and Culture of Vietnam, Ann C. Crawford, Tuttle Publ., Rutland, Vt., 1966.

   A description of many Vietnamese customs and traditions by an American resident in South Vietnam who traveled extensively throughout the country.

6. A Dragon Defiant, Joseph Buttinger, Praeger Publ., New York, 1972.

   A short history of Vietnam for the general reader, the book contains a wealth of information on the land, the people and its history.

7. Handbook for Teachers of Vietnamese Students: Hints for Dealing with Cross-Cultural Differences in Schools, National Indochinese Clearinghouse, Center for Applied Linguistics, Arlington, Virginia, 1975.

   A short guide for American teachers, containing practical information on the differences between the American and Vietnamese school systems and useful suggestions on how to help the Vietnamese refugee children adapt to the new school environment.

8. Fire in the Lake: The Vietnamese and Americans in Vietnam, Frances Fitzgerald, Little, Brown & Co., Boston, Mass., 1972.

   A sensitive and insightful examination of the American involvement in Vietnam, seen against the background of Vietnamese culture and history.

9. Getting to Know the Vietnamese and Their Culture, Vuong Gia Thuy, Ungar Publ., New York, 1976.

   Originally intended as a guide for Americans working with the Vietnamese refugees in the U.S., this short book about the Vietnamese deals very briefly with their cultural background, their values, their characteristics, and their educational system.

10. Land in Between: The Cambodian Dilemma, Maslyn Williams, William Morrow and Co., New York, 1970.

    This is a non-specialist view of Cambodia. There is a discussion of political, economic and developmental problems (presented from the Australian point of view), but essentially, Mr. Williams' book is an interesting travelogue, written in a very clever, enjoyable style.

11. Laos: Its People, Its Society, Its Culture, Frank Lebar and Adrienne Suddar, Human Relations Area File Press, New Haven, Conn., 1960.

    This is a very useful general introduction to the culture of Laos. It includes sections on history, religion, politics, daily life, education, etc. This book, and its companion on Cambodia (see No. 4 above) are extremely helpful for the general reader because of the unbiased treatment that the authors give to the subjects and because of the high quality scholarship that the authors display.

12. Little World of Laos, Oden Meeker, Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1959.

    This is a travelogue-journal written by a CARE representative who went to Laos just after the Franco-Indochinese war ended in 1954. His photographs are interesting and the highly readable style of the author provides an interesting view of Laos, with glimpses of Thailand can Cambodia.

13. Short History of Cambodia: From the Days of Angkor to the Present, Martin F. Herz, Praeger Publ. Co., New York, 1958.

    This is a rather brief, somewhat superficial history of Cambodia up to the Independence period, designed for the non-specialist. The sections on Angkor, however, are quite interesting.

APPENDIX J

VIETNAMESE HISTORY, LITERATURE & FOLKLORE: K-12

The following bibliography deals with cultural and literary material about Vietnam and the Vietnamese, available in English. The entries are all for the elementary or secondary level. When available, we have given prices for the books.

1. The Beggar in the Blanket and Other Vietnamese Tales, retold by Gail B. Graham, illustrated by Brigitte Bryan. New York: The Dial Press, 1970. 96 pp. $4.95.

   Translated from French language sources in Vietnam by a famous woman reporter/writer who lived in Vietnam during 1966 and 1967. The fairy tales collected are her favorites and the book was basically written for her own children. Some details of these popular stories have been changed, yet the stories are nevertheless delightfully retold and a source of enjoyment for children and adults alike.

2. First Snow, by Helen Contant, illustrated by Vo Dinh. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1974. 32 pp. $4.50.

   A children's story featuring a little Vietnamese girl who has learned to accept the cycle of life and death as a natural pattern of the universe when, for the first time, she watched the falling snow in her first winter in the U.S. The story is gentle in style, beautifully illustrated by a well-known Vietnamese artist.

3. From the Vietnamese: Ten Centuries of Poetry, edited by Burton Raffel. New York: October House, 1968. 75 pp. (Secondary and Adult)

   A seven-page introduction discusses and illustrates the rules of Vietnamese versification. The rest of the book is a collection of Vietnamese poems from the 11th century to the present. Two peasant songs are included. The translations are by Burton Raffel based on literal renderings of the originals supplied by Vietnamese scholars. (The poems represent a wide range both in time and subject matter.)

4. Getting to Know the Two Vietnams, by Fred West, illustrated by Polly Bolian. New York: Coward-McCann, 1963. 64 pp.

   The first half of the book, for upper elementary and junior high students, gives a comprehensive historical background of Vietnam, the achievements of President Diem's administration and the causes that led to its downfall. There is a chapter on the city of Saigon, the people, the transportation, schools, clothing and food.

The second half deals with foreign aid in Vietnam, primarily Chinese in the North and American in the South. The life in North Vietnam is presented through the eyes of a boy brought up on a state-run farm. The author also talks about the role of different religions in Vietnam and some cultural features.

"To tell twin stories" is the stated goal of the book, yet there are only five pages devoted to the life in North Vietnam.

The writing is clear, instructive, and supplemented with beautiful illustrations, maps and a chronology of important dates in Vietnamese history.

5. KIM - A Gift From Vietnam, by Frank W. Chinnock. New York: World Publishing Co., 1971. 210 pp. (Secondary and Adult)

An editor for Reader's Digest, Mr. Chinnock tells the story of his own adopted Vietnamese child. The first five chapters describe how the family came to the decision of adopting a Vietnamese girl, his trip to Saigon to search for "their daughter", their long wait, their anxiety, expectation, frustration and finally the arrival of Kim. The remaining eight chapters describe the difficult time they had adjusting to Kim and helping Kim adjust to her new family. Recommended expecially for adoptive parents with Vietnamese children. The Chinnocks' personal experience will help them understand and handle their adopted children better. There are 30 pictures of Kim in different moods and acts.

6. Land of Seagull and Fox: Folk Tales of Vietnam, by Ruth Q. Sun, illustrated by Ho Thanh Duc. Rutland, Vermont: C.E. Tuttle Co., 1967. 135 pp. $5.50. (Secondary and Adult)

Thirty-one traditional folk stories translated in a pleasant style. The author spent one year as a lecturer at the University of Saigon, and collected many of the stories directly from her students in "versions learned at the knees of their parents and grandparents". The book is well presented, beautifully illustrated and representative; the tales reflect the universal nature of folk tales, showing man's earliest attempt to interpret his own surroundings, the basic human plight, man's inner desire to get away from harsh reality, etc. There is a short chronology of events -- both real and legendary -- in Vietnamese history. The book can serve as an entertaining source of information on Vietnam and its people.

7. Let's Visit Vietnam, by John C. Caldwell. New York: The John Day Co., 1969. $3.96.

Appropriate for upper elementary and junior high students. The first part of the book gives an outline of the history of Vietnam from the ancient past to the emergence of Ho Chi Minh and the partition of Vietnam in 1954. It also describes the way of life in different areas of the country: the rural, the highlands and the city. The second half is about the American involvement in Vietnam. The book ends with the beginning of the combat troops' withdrawal.

In his account of events, the author tends to relate what is familiar to the Americans, such as the comparison of the nocturnal attacks of the Viet Cong on the strategic hamlets with the Indian attacks during the night in the pioneer days, which help give a clearer picture to the young reader.

Despite a few errors regarding the historical facts of Vietnam and the language, the book is easy to read, clear, instructive. It is intended for the American student who wants to know the whys and hows of the American involvement in Vietnam.

8. NHAN, a Boy of Vietnam, by Inor Forney, edited by Joann Robinson. Rutland, Vermont: Charles E. Tuttle Co., 1969. 25 pp.

Some scenes of life in Saigon seen through the eyes of a 10-year-old paper boy from a poor family. Includes: the inside of Nhan's one-room house, the presidential palace, the policeman and a would-be saboteur, the New Year's celebration in Chinatown, the moon festival, and central market. The book is filled with interesting illustrations which make the reading more attractive to children.

9. Our Friends in Vietnam, by Inor & E.H. Forney. Rutland, Vermont: Charles E. Tuttle Co., 1967. 61 pp. $1.00.

A coloring book presented in the author's own handwriting. Each page is accompanied with a drawing of the scene described. The book shows activities of ordinary people in cities and rural areas: the food they eat, the clothes they wear, the things they do, the places they go and so on.

The book is more than a coloring book. As stated, it is "designed for people of all ages who would enjoy painting or coloring in crayon and learning something at the same time about our friends in Vietnam".

10. Promises to Keep, by Paige Dixon. New York: Atheneum, 1974. 165 pp. $6.95. (Secondary and Adult)

The book deals with problems faced by an orphaned boy, half American, half Vietnamese, when he went to live with his American grandmother in a small New England town after his Vietnamese mother died. His quiet but strong personality had a good influence on his American cousin. The book also presents the American youngsters as prejudiced, cruel, thoughtless; but there are other nice boys, too.

11. Southeast Asia, by William A. Withington and Margaret Fisher. Grand Rapids: Fideler Company, 1968. 272 pp.

This is a well-presented elementary geography textbook. The first 13 chapters deal with the area in general (land, climate, history, people, farming, fishing, natural resources, crafts and industry, transportation and communication, festivals and recreations, arts). There follow chapters on each country including sections on history, geography, government, and education. The book is filled with large, interesting black and white photographs which are well-coordinated with the text to illustrate what is being discussed. Maps are also well used to illustrate various types of information.

The sections on Cambodia and Vietnam seem fairly presented although the history, of course, is not up to date. The chapter on festivals has a description of Tet. Here and throughout the book, there are several good pictures of activities in Vietnam (and Cambodia).

12. The Story of Vietnam: A Background Book for Young People, by Hal Dareff. New York: Parents' Magazine Press, 1966. 250 pp. (Intermediate through Adult)

This is a clearly presented (primarily modern) history of Vietnam. The book begins with a chapter on the history of Vietnam before the French. The establishment of the French is given in more detail, and there is a chapter on communism and Ho Chi Minh. The last half of the book is devoted to the period since World War II, with the book ending with President Ky still in power.

The author's purpose is to provide a background for understanding American involvement in Vietnam. As a result, this is almost exclusively a political history, and is primarily concerned with the more recent periods. In places the writing seems somewhat "slanted", but the author makes it clear in his introduction that the book contains personal opinions and interpretations of facts.

13. Vietnam and Countries of the Mekong, by Larry Henderson. Rev. ed. New York: Thomas Nelson, 1967. 254 pp. (Secondary and Adult)

The first five chapters are devoted to Vietnam, ranging from the geographical and cultural background to the political and economic problems. Good background reading for high school students.

14. Viet Nam: Land of Many Dragons, by Hal Buell. New York: Dodd, Mead, 1968. 142 pp.

This is a simplified history of Vietnam for the upper elementary/junior high level, with about half the book devoted to the period of American involvement. The last two chapters deal with the impact of the Vietnamese war on the U.S. and its possible importance in the world situation. The book is illustrated with many striking black and white photographs. (Because of its publication date (1968) the concluding chapters are dated.)

15. Vietnam, Our Beloved Land, by Nguyen Cao Dam and Tran Cao Linh. Rutland, Vermont: Charles E. Tuttle Co., 1968. 124 pp. (Intermediate through Adult)

This is a collection of photographs by Vietnamese photographers designed to show Vietnam as it is remembered by the Vietnamese. The 86 photographs are grouped into the following categories, each of which begins with a brief introduction: plains and meadows, the evergreen highlands, the sea, sand dunes, cultural aspects and folklore, Vietnamese boats, the Vietnamese woman, the

Vietnamese soldier. While these photographs have been chosen in part for their artistic value, most of them also present visually important aspects of Vietnamese culture as well as views of the land and people.

16. *Vietnam: The Country, The People*, by David C. Cooke. New York: Grosset & Dunlap, 1968. $4.95. (Secondary and Adult)

The book has 11 chapters covering the legendary origin of the Vietnamese, their historical background and the characteristics of their way of life as compared with those in the Western world. Chapter headings are: 1) Legend of the Kindly Dragon, 2) A Study in Survival, 3) The Family is Always First, 4) Paris of the Orient, 5) Life in a Vietnamese Village, 6) Customs and Religions, 7) The Happy Times, 8) A Different Way of Life, 9) Marriage by Arrangement, 10) *Nước mắm* and Hot Dog, 11) Your Future in the Stars. Most of the information collected is based on the author's personal contacts during the days he served in Vietnam as publications advisor to the SVN government.

The author dwells heavily on traditions no longer practiced in Vietnam which tend to give the reader a misleading impression of the daily life of the modern Vietnamese. He also tends to overgeneralize, and misinterpretations crop up throughout the book. Yet, it is a delightful book to read if one is looking for entertaining reading material.

17. *Vietnamese Folk Poetry*, translated by John Balaban. Greensboro, N.C.: Unicorn Press, 1974. 47 pp. $8.00 cloth, $4.00 paperback. (Secondary and Adult)

This is a book of traditional Vietnamese oral poems (*ca dao*) collected by the translator in the Mekong delta, Saigon, the Central Highlands, and Hue in 1971 and 1972. The poems in this book were chosen from around 500 recorded at that time from about 30 people ranging from a 5-year-old boy to a 72-year-old woman. In addition to the 36 short poems (the longest is a page), there is a one-page introduction and a biographical note about the translator.

18. *Vietnamese Legends*, compiled and translated by G.F. Schultz. Rutland, Vermont: C.E. Tuttle Co., 1965. 163 pp. $4.70. (Secondary and Adult)

The book contains 32 short stories as part of the well of folklore of Vietnam. Versions presented here are most popular ones and given in a pleasant style. The author gives a brief note on the historical background of the country, pointing out the deep influence on the culture by the neighbor to the north, yet observes that "on the Chinese base, there has developed a language, literature and civilization of distinct Vietnamese flavor", a point many foreign writers on Vietnam have missed.

19. *Zen Poems*, by Nhat Hanh. Greensboro, N.C.: Unicorn Press, in press. $10.00 cloth, $5.00 paperback.

This book contains 12 poems. These are written in Vo Dinh's ink-and-brush calligraphy (in Vietnamese) on a sheet which also interprets each verse with a drawing. The English translation (by Teo Savory and Vo Dinh) is en face. The poems suggest the feel of the philosophy of Zen Buddhism.

END

*U.S.GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE--1977--720-057/6139